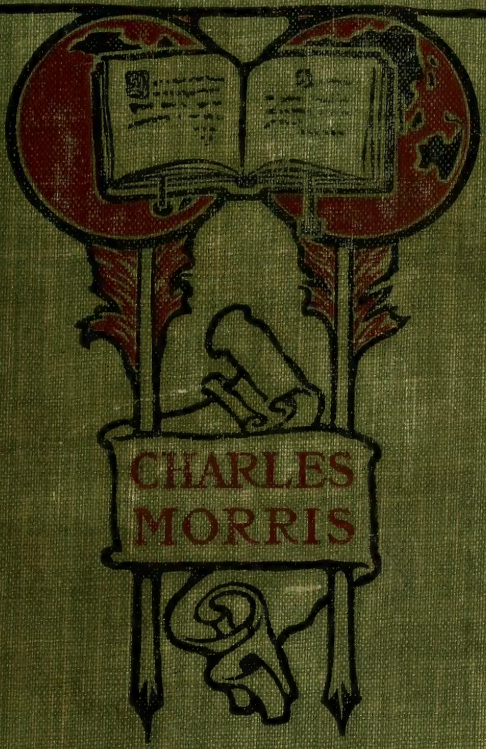
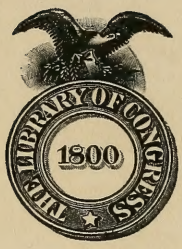
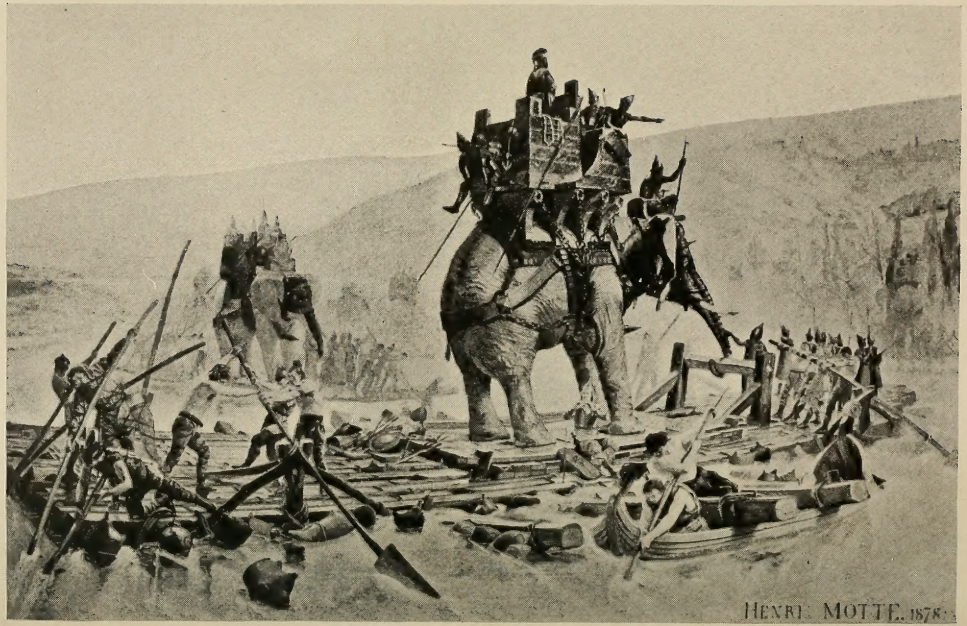
HISTORY OF THE WORLD



CHARLES MORRIS


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HISTORY OF THE WORLD



HANNIBAL'S ARMY CROSSING THE RHONE.

HISTORY OF THE WORLD

BY

CHARLES MORRIS

AUTHOR OF "A HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES, ITS PEOPLE AND ITS INSTITUTIONS," "YOUNG STUDENT'S HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES," "HISTORICAL TALES," ETC.

WITH MAPS AND ILLUSTRATIONS

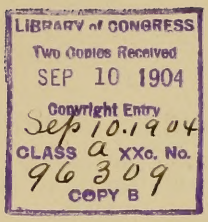


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PREFACE

"THE PROPER STUDY OF MANKIND IS MAN." Thus wrote Alexander Pope, and the truth of his assertion receives the ready endorsement of thoughtful men the world over. The foundation of this study lies in the history of the human race. Of this we know but a small portion, but what we do know is of the highest interest and is full of useful lessons which all should seek to learn.

Every one of us, every man and woman that has ever lived, has had something to do with the history of the world, has taken some part in those influences which have made men and nations what we find them to-day. History has something to do with all this, with the work done by the multitudes of the people as well as that done by those leaders of mankind whose lives greatly helped or hindered the progress of the human race. There have been many hundreds of these leading men, and it is the story of their lives that makes history as it is generally given us. As it is they that have controlled the great movements of mankind, so it is of them that the historian usually writes.

The purpose of this book is to give the youthful student some little idea of what man has done upon the earth. There are thousands of volumes of history, many of them very large and full of information. But before any one attempts to read these, it is very important to get a general idea of man's doings. When we want to know about the nations and natural divisions of the earth, we look on a map and see for ourselves where they are situated and how they are

related to one another. When this is carefully done we seem to have them all mapped out in our memory, and can call them up just as though the map stood before us in the air. That is what we are trying to do in the present work. It is a sort of outline map of history. In it we can see the nations rising and sinking and learn how they were related to one another in space and time. We get an idea of what man has been doing since civilization first began, the great men who have appeared and the great things they have done. Once get the facts given in these pages well fixed in your mind, and in future years, when you come to read the history of a nation or a period, you will find that you have an excellent foundation laid down. You will see before your eyes where that nation stands among the various nations of the earth, and what it stands for in the history of mankind. And if it is the story of a great king or warrior you come to read, you will know in advance just where he belongs and what he did of value or injury to mankind.

In a book of this size the most that could be done was to pass swiftly down the great highway of history, pointing out its striking features as we went, but not stopping for a close survey of great deeds and great events. Or we may liken it to a bird's-eye view of the incidents which have taken place on our planet during the historical period, a view in which only the events of leading importance can be seen. This is all that we set out to do, and all that our readers are prepared to accept. We desired to give them a general outlook upon civilization in the making; to show them how nation after nation has arisen; how, as time went on, better institutions and superior customs were gained; who were the men and what were the causes that moulded men into nations, and what has helped civilization in its

onward course. To the young student such an outline of the world's history is of the utmost value. It is important that he should gain a clear conception of the progress of mankind and fix in his mind the names, periods, and general significance of the several nations, and the place which each occupies in the great plan of human development. He will find it a lasting benefit to have the whole grand scheme clearly outlined in his memory, serving as a solid foundation for any plan of historical reading or study he may pursue in his later years.

In studying history the usual method is to begin with the history of our own country. But you must see that this history stands alone and can be properly understood only by learning the history of the nations from which our country arose. If you should see one man standing alone and hear from him his story, it would not tell you much about the history of his city, and you would need to learn what thousands of others had done. All men and all nations are linked together, and you cannot understand one without having some idea of all. That is what makes general history, the story of the world as a whole, so important. We have tried to lay down in this little book, in a way that will help to fix it in your mind, not only what men have done, but how they have lived and what they have learned; to show how civilization has grown up stage by stage, until it reached the high level it has now attained. We hope this has been done well enough to make our work a useful aid to all who may read or study its pages.

It is the political history of mankind which stands first, as the necessary link to bind the whole together, but sufficient attention has been given to the arts, manners, and customs of different ages to yield some idea of how man has made his

way onward and upward. The history of our own country, as will be seen, has been dealt with very briefly, it being taken for granted that the readers of this work are already familiar with the story of the United States, and need only to have its main features pointed out. As a whole, it is trusted that the outline view we have sought to give of what man has done upon the earth will suffice to give the student a broad grasp of human history, and fit him for fuller studies in after life.

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INTRODUCTION

We are sure that most readers, young and old alike, would like to know something about the history of the world they live in, something about the many nations that have dwelt upon the face of the earth, where they have lived, what they have done, the great men they have had, the wars they have fought, and their labors in time of peace. Is not all this important to know? And can there be anything of more interest to us all than to learn what man has been and has done? For thousands and thousands of years men have been working and striving, thinking and writing, exploring and discovering, and growing wiser and better, until the great and enlightened nations of the present time have arisen.

It has been a long journey from the early days of mankind to the present. At the beginning we meet with vast multitudes of men, divided into families and tribes and nations, rising and falling, coming and going, like moving figures in a great picture. In this book it is our purpose to lead you along this mighty path, show you the nations as they came and went, and let you behold them in the strange and wonderful events of their lives. Just think what great things have taken place during the few years of your own lives, and with what interest you have read or heard of them. Such things, and many more wonderful ones, have been taking place ever since man came upon the earth, and it is these things that make up history. Only a few of the more important of them can be told here, for the story of them all would fill a whole library of books. But

there is little doubt that you will find even these few well worth reading about.

How History began.—What is history? It is the written story of mankind and of the doings of nations. Millions and millions of men have lived who had nothing to do with what we call history, for we know little or nothing about them or their actions. It is only since man learned how to write that true history has existed, for history is largely made up of the deeds of great men, the kings and conquerors, the workers and thinkers and inventors of the world, and of these we can learn only from the written or the printed page.

As you may see, it is to the writer that we owe all we know of history, and as the art of writing was learned after man became civilized, all history belongs to the period of civilization.

Relics of Early Man.—Of course, we know something about the doings of uncivilized men, but we have learned it all through the discoveries of civilized travellers and students, who have searched the world for facts, and have written these down in books. The tools and weapons used by early man have been found in vast numbers. Their rude buildings have been studied, their graves have been opened, and many of their movements over the face of the earth have been traced. This is not history, but science. For history we must know a good deal about how nations were formed and kept together, the names and deeds of their leading men, and the important events which took place in their career.

The Savage State.—Men are divided, as no doubt you know, into three classes,—the savage, the barbarous, and the civilized. These three classes still exist; there are

to-day many savage and barbarous tribes and civilized nations. But at one time, very far in the past, all men are thought to have been in the savage state, living by hunting and fishing, wandering from place to place, dwelling in caves or trees, or rude huts, and wearing little clothing other than the skins of animals. At one time our own country was inhabited by people of this kind, and some of our Indian tribes are still in the savage state.

What is meant by Barbarism.—A higher stage is that of the barbarian. The time came when men learned the art of taming animals and using them for food and other purposes. They had cattle, and sheep, and horses, and camels, and they began also to plant seeds, and to raise plants whose fruits and seeds they could use for food. Their homes, too, got to be more comfortable, and their tribes or clans grew better organized, with some rude kind of laws and government. This is what we call the barbarous state. Many of the people of Africa and Asia are still in this state.

The Origin of Civilization.—Years and years passed on, nobody knows how many, and then civilized peoples began to appear. Many men ceased to wander about the earth as hunters or fishers, or to follow their flocks from pasture to pasture, carrying their tents with them, or building rude huts of branches and leaves. They had learned a great deal about how to cultivate the earth, and now settled down in the midst of their fields, and built themselves fixed homes, and fed their animals in pastures of their own. Some of them learned how to take water from the rivers, and carry it in canals so as to spread it over the land, and in this way to make their food plants grow and bear more abundantly.

The Gathering of the Nations.—When this had come about large numbers of people could live close together, and have enough to eat and to wear, and build good houses with plenty of furniture and other comforts. And some of them grew rich and some powerful; and laws and religions arose among them; and they had their priests, and their army leaders, and their rulers; and in time the art of writing was invented, and scribes began to write down the story of what their kings and generals and priests and learned men had done. This is what we call the civilized state. Great bodies of men, settled in fixed districts, bound together by laws and customs, protected by armies and governed by rulers, form what we call civilized nations.

What History means.—What is usually meant by history is the doings of settled and civilized nations. It includes the lives of their great men and the story of the people as a whole; their works, their organization, their arts, their deeds in war and peace, their growth in numbers and power, and in most cases their final decline and their overthrow by some stronger nation or people. But to become true history the story of their laws and organization and deeds must have been written down at the time, otherwise we could know their doings only by the doubtful legends told of them and the relics left behind; and the study of the relics of human labor is not history; it is what is known as the science of archæology,—that is, research into the works of man's hands.

The Races of Men.—Men are not all alike. In fact, they are often very unlike. There are not only the small differences which we see in the men around us, but there are great differences between the inhabitants of the widely separated sections of the earth. These are so strongly marked

that we divide men into races. Thus there are races based on the color of the skin. We speak of the white race, the yellow race, the black race, and the red race. There are also races based on language. These are known as the Ar'yan, the Tura'nian, the Semit'ic, the Hamit'ic, and other races.

The Historic Races.—We shall find, as we go on, that history has had very little to do with any of these races but one, the white or Cauca'sian race, which includes three of the races founded on language,—the Aryan, the Semitic, and the Hamitic. The yellow or Turanian race has only one important historic nation of ancient date, the Chinese, and one of later date, the Japanese; as for the other races, the black men of Africa have made scarcely any history and the red men of America not much more. The history of the world, then, is very largely that of the white race, the great civilized race of mankind.

The White Race.—Where shall we find this white race? If we seek it to-day we must look for it all over the earth's surface, for there are few lands where men can live at all to which white men have not gone. And they are the lords and masters of much the greater part of the earth. But this was not the case in the far past. Then they were confined to Europe and the southern part of Asia and a small country in the northeastern part of Africa.

The Aryans.—You have been told that the white race is divided into the Ar'yans, the Sem'ites, and the Ham'ites. These are what are called linguistic races. That is, each of them has a kind of language of its own. Very long ago the Aryans had spread all over Europe and over Persia and India in Asia. They were divided into many sections, each with its own mode of speech, but these all spoke languages

of one type, from which we judge that they all came from one set of ancestors.

The Semites and Hamites.—When we come to the Semites and Hamites we find them dwelling in a much smaller space. The Semites were confined to southwestern Asia. They occupied the countries of Arabia, Syria, and the region about the Euphrates and Tigris Rivers. The people dwelling in these regions spoke languages very different from those of the Aryans, but they were white like them and were not very unlike them in features. The Hamites dwelt in the country of Egypt. They, too, spoke a language of a special type, but did not differ greatly from the Semites in appearance.

The Color of the Whites.—It is well you should bear in mind all that is here said, for it is quite important. That you may remember it the better, something more may be said about it. When we speak of the white race, for instance, we do not mean men of pure white complexion. Those of the far north of Europe are blond or fair in color, with light or red hair and blue eyes. But as we go south we meet with men of darker skin, and around the Mediterranean Sea we find people with olive or brown skins and with black hair and eyes. But there is a general resemblance in their features, which are very different from those of the black and yellow races, and we feel sure that they all came from the same source.

The Aryan Divisions.—Now let us speak briefly of their division into nations or peoples. Of the Aryans, there are two great divisions in Asia,—the dark-faced Hindus, who inhabit the great peninsula of India, and the lighter-faced Persians, who dwell on the highlands north of the Persian Gulf. Europe had of old several important divisions,—the

Greeks and Romans of the south, which were the most important peoples in ancient history; the Slavon'ians (Russians and others) of the east; the Celts (Irish, French, and others) of the west; and the Teu'tons (Germans, Anglo-Saxons, and others) of the centre and north.

The Semitic and Hamitic Peoples.—The Semites, while few in numbers as compared with the Aryans, had also several divisions,—the Arabs, the Hebrews, the Phœni'cians, the Babylon'ians, and the Assyr'ians. Of these, the Arabs may still be found on their native soil, but the Hebrews are scattered widely over the earth, and the others have long since passed away. The Hamites have only one important historical division,—the Egyp'tians. For ages in the past they formed a great and famous kingdom, but their glory vanished more than two thousand years ago.

The Turanians of History.—Let us glance in passing at the yellow race, the people sometimes called Tura'nians, sometimes Mongo'lians. There are vast multitudes of these people, occupying all of northern, central, and eastern Asia, and spreading into the frozen region of the far north of Europe. They can scarcely be called historical, except in the case of one branch of them,—the Chinese. But in the Chinese we have the most populous nation on the face of the earth, a mighty multitude of people nearly four hundred millions in number. Another branch, the Japanese, has recently come into history, and is to-day one of the prominent nations of the earth, while its written annals go back many centuries into the past. You have thus had laid before you the names of the leading historical peoples of the earth, and now we may begin with their history.

PART I

ANCIENT HISTORY

SECTION I.—THE ORIENTAL NATIONS

CHAPTER I

BABYLONIA

The Mother of Nations.—If any one should ask which is the oldest of the nations, it would not be easy to answer. For a long time Egypt has been looked on as the mother of nations, but late discovery has taught us that Babylo'nia was quite as ancient, and may have been the oldest of all civilized countries. This being the case, it is well to begin with the story of this very old people.

The Country of Babylonia.—The best way to understand this story is to look for the Babylonian country on the map of Asia. If you look at the southwest corner of this map, where Asia and Europe and Africa come together, you will see the lines of two rivers, the Euphra'tes and the Ti'gris, which rise in the mountains of Arme'nia and flow south to the Persian Gulf. Before they reach this gulf the two rivers join and become one stream. It is the country about the lower part of these rivers with which we have to deal. The name of Mesopota'mia, which means "between the rivers," was given of old to the upper section of this country. The lower, near where the rivers join together, is often called

Chaldea (Kal-de'a), but is best known as Babylonia. It is a land that had a long and remarkable history in the far past, about which we have learned much in recent years.



MAP OF BABYLONIA AND ASSYRIA.

A Fertile and Populous Country.—If we should go to this country to-day we would find it in great part a swampy and sandy desert, with few people besides the wandering Arabs, who seek pasture there for their horses, camels, and sheep. But if we could have made a visit there three thousand or more years ago we would have seen a very different sight. Then it was a land full of people, with many crowded and busy cities, and with broad fields bearing great harvests of wheat and barley and other grains, which grew in wonderful luxuriance. On the river-banks were groves of the

magnificent date-palm and the fig-tree, and there were grapes and other fruits in great plenty, while the rivers were full of fish. Thus it was a land in which a large population could live and thrive.



THE EUPHRATES AT BABYLON.
(City Mound in Distance.)

How Farming was done.—Let us turn our attention more closely to this famous region. The land here is low, not rising much above the level of the rivers, and much of it is overflowed when the river rises, large swamps being made. There are rains in the winter, but the summers are hot and dry, and in the far past many long and deep canals were made, with ditches to spread the water of the rivers over the land. The soil is very rich, and by bringing water to the fields they were made to yield splendid harvests of grain. It was here that the old Babylonian kingdom grew up, with its many cities and its hosts of busy people. Since then the

canals have been allowed to dry up and the country to become a desert. This is what war has done for that old land.

When Babylonia began.—It was formerly thought that this old kingdom was founded somewhere about 2000 B.C., —that is, two thousand years before the time of Christ. But we now know that kings reigned there before 4000 B.C., and some think that the kingdom is much older even than that. Professor Hilprecht, of the University of Pennsylvania, who has explored the ruins of the old cities and read many of the books found there, thinks that it goes back as far as 7000 B.C., or even 8000 B.C. If that is the case it is the oldest civilized country known upon the earth. But we cannot be sure of this till more discoveries are made.

The Oldest Settlers.—In the beginning of Babylonia, whenever that was, a new people entered the country, conquered its old inhabitants, and took possession of it. Where they came from we are not sure, but it is thought they came from the hill-country to the north, and brought with them some of the arts of civilization, for they soon showed that they knew how to read and write. That was a great deal to know so long ago as that. Some of their writing still exists, and its language seems like that of the people of Northern Asia, so it is thought that they were of the Turanian or yellow race. But of this there is some doubt; we know too little about them to be sure. They called themselves Acca'dians and also Sume'rians, and from the beginning the country was divided into two sections, one called Ac'cad, which lay to the north, and the other called Shu'mer, which lay to the south, near the junction of the rivers.

The Cuneiform Writing.—The writing of this people was of the kind called hieroglyph'ic or picture-writing, something like that of the ancient people of Egypt. In early times it

seems to have been written on papyrus, the kind of paper used in old Egypt, or something similar. In later times flat pieces of clay were used, on which the letters and words were made with a little stamp shaped like a wedge. From this the writing is called cune'i-form, or "wedge-form." The tablets, when stamped, were made hard by drying or burning and formed the books of the Accadians. Many thousands of them have been found, and it is from these that we have learned nearly all we know of the history of this very ancient people.



An Inscribed Brick from Erech.

What we know about the Accadians.—We know very little about the history of this old people, but we know something. In reading about their kings it is much like as if we were to jump with a great leap from Cæsar, the emperor of Rome, to William the Conqueror, of England, and from him to Napoleon of France. For we are given the name of one king, and then of another a thousand or two thousand years later, and are told very little of what happened between. But the books of the Accadians tell us a good deal of importance about their country and its people. We know that they had cities whose buildings were made of bricks, and that each city had its temple and its deity, and that their early rulers were priests as well as kings. For a long time each city had its separate king, who ruled over the surrounding country also. And each, very likely, had its library, which was kept in the tem-

ple; also its schools and workshops and places of business, for those cities were more like our own than one would expect when we think of their very ancient date.

How the Land was named.—For a long time this country was known as the land of Shumer and Accad, and when a king ruled over the whole country he called himself "King of Shumer and Accad," or "King of the Totality." In the Bible Shumer is called Shi'nar, and we are told that it was here the sons of Noah settled and the Tower of Babel was built. In far later times, about 2000 B.C., a people from the south called the Kal'di invaded the land, and in time they became masters of it all and their kings ruled over it. It was from them that the country got the name of Chaldea (Kal-de'a), and the people of Chalde'ans. Before that time the city of Bab'ylon had become the chief city of the land, and from it the country became known as Babylo'nia. This is the name by which it is now best known.

The Early Cities and Kings.—Very far back in the history of the land there were a number of cities, some of the oldest being E'ridu and Nip'pur (now Nif'fer) and Ur and Shirpur'la and U'ruk or E'rech (now War'ku). These cities are now heaps of ruins, with Turkish villages near some of them. If we go back to the very beginning of their history we meet with the name of King En-shag-sag'ana, "Lord of Ken'gi." Some writers think that he lived about 4500 B.C., but if this is so it is likely that there were many kings before him. His capital city was Nippur, and he conquered Kish, "the wicked," and that is about all we know of him. After him came other kings, some of whom were very warlike. One of them, named Lu-gal-zag'gi-si, tells us that his empire reached "from the rising to the setting of the sun." But in those days this did not mean nearly so much as it

would now, and it may have been much of a boast. It is likely his kingdom was not very large.

When Sargon reigned.—The first king we know much about was Sar'gon, the earliest great conqueror spoken of in history. We even know when he lived, and that is much to know about so old a king. One of the latest kings of Babylonia tells us that Sargon's son reigned about 3750 B.C., so Sargon must have reigned about 3800 B.C. This is very likely true, for lists of the kings and the length of their reigns were kept in the temples of Babylon, and it was easy enough to count back.

The Legend about Sargon.—The old writings tell us a very interesting story about Sargon. It says that his mother was one of the poor people, and that he did not know his father. His mother put him in a basket-boat made of rushes and set him afloat in the river. A canal-builder drew him from the water and brought him up as his own son, and he became his gardener. Afterwards he rose to be king of the whole land. This is much like the story in the Bible about Moses, who was left by his mother in the bulrushes by the river-side and taken out by the king's daughter.

The Story of Two Great Kings.—As has been said, we do not know much about the first settlers of Babylonia. But we do know that the Semites of Syria and Arabia made their way into that country and in time became the ruling race. They took up the arts and customs of the older people, though they kept their own language. Sargon was a Semitic king. He ruled over all the land, and made the city of A'gade, in the north of Accad, his capital. And he led his armies far to the east and the west; from the mountains of Elam to the distant Mediterranean Sea, and also north into Armenia and south into Arabia. He was, as

we have said, the first great conquerer that history tells us of. For three years his armies were on the Mediterranean coast, no doubt fighting and conquering, and they may have gone down into Egypt. His son, Na'ram Sin, was also a great warrior, who conquered the land of Magana, in the peninsula of Sinai, where the Egyptians worked mines of turquoise and copper. A seal of his has been found in the island of Cyprus. He gave himself the proud title of "King of the Four Regions," meaning "King of the World."



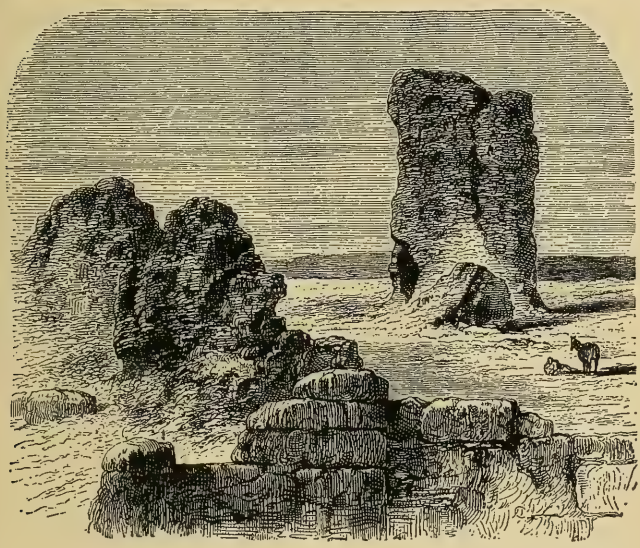
CONVOY OF PRISONERS AND SPOIL.

Ur Gur and Dungi.—It is long before we read of another great king. The first is Ur Gur, of the city of Ur, and after him his son Dungi. Their time was about 3000 B.C. They conquered the whole country and were the first to call themselves "King of Shumer and Accad." The most important work they did was to build temples in all the chief cities. Probably the old temples were broken down with age, for the country even then was very old, and these kings built them up again.

Dungi the Second.—Another Dungi, who came several centuries later, was also a builder of temples. He led his armies into Syria and called himself "King of the Four

Regions," and was so great a monarch that after he died the people worshipped him as a god. In old times, you must know, many kings were looked on as gods after they died, and some while they lived.

Elam conquers Babylonia.—To the east of Babylonia, in the mountain region, there was then a country named



Ruins of Babylon.

Elam. No doubt, as the centuries went on, its people learned some of the arts of war and peace from Babylonia, and about 2300 B.C. one of its kings led an army into that country and conquered all or part of it. From the city of Uruk he carried away a statue of the goddess Nana. More than sixteen hundred years afterwards a king of Assyria captured Susa, the capital of Elam, and found this statue there

and sent it back to its old city. In those days each of the cities had a god of its own. They set much store by their statues, and it was looked on as a dreadful misfortune to lose them. So the people of Uruk were very glad to get their god back after these many years.

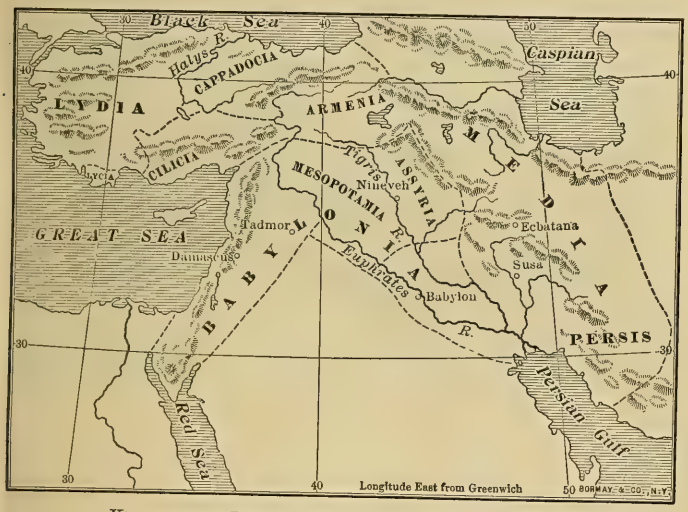
Babylon and its Early History.—The country we call Babylonia was several thousand years old before we hear much of Babylon, the city to which it owes its name. Yet Babylon must have been a very old place, for we are told that Sargon built a temple there. Its first king that we know of reigned about 2400 B.C. But about 2250 B.C. one of its kings, named Khammura'bi, went to war with the Elamites, and drove them out of the northern country. That made Babylon the royal city of the land, and it kept this position until the kingdom came to an end.

A Famous Builder.—Khammurabi was an able and active monarch and did much for the good of his city and country. For one thing, he was a great canal-builder. The first canal was dug centuries before by King Urukag'ina, and he thought it so useful that he named it after the goddess Nina. Before that the fields were watered by lifting water from the rivers. New canals, long and deep, were built by Khammurabi, and much more land was brought under cultivation. He also built temples and a fine palace, and he fortified the city and built a great wall along the river Tigris, to keep out the Elamites.

Babylon and Assyria.—We do not know much about the early history of Babylon. It is said to have been conquered about 2000 B.C. by the southern tribe called the Kaldi, of whom we have spoken; and in 1543 B.C. by Arabian invaders, but of all this we know very little. In after-times it became far better known and grew to be mighty and

famous among the cities of the earth. It was called Babylon the Great. About 1300 B.C. it was captured by the Assyrians, of whom you shall be told later on. But they did not hold it long at that time, and it was not till 728 B.C. that it came fully under Assyrian rule. At a later time the brother of the Assyrian king was made King of Babylon.

Babylon is destroyed and rebuilt.—In 690 B.C. a terrible misfortune came to this old city. The people of

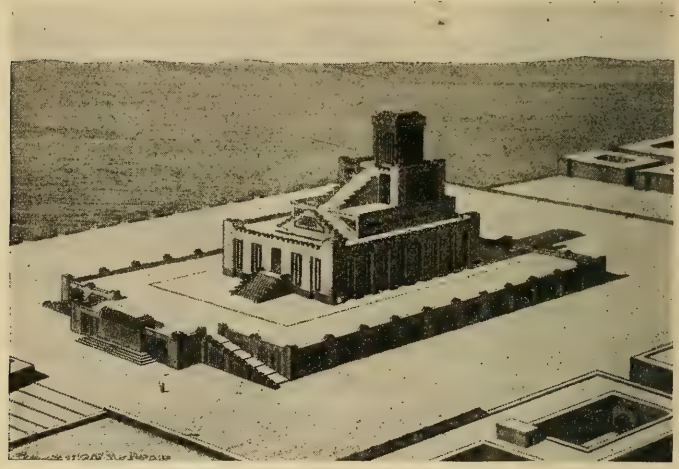


KINGDOMS OF LYDIA, MEDIA, AND BABYLONIA, 550 B.C.

Babylonia gave the Assyrians so much trouble by their rebellions that King Sennach'erib ordered his soldiers to destroy their city. So its walls and buildings were thrown down, its temples and palaces levelled to the ground, its people killed, and all its wealth was given to the soldiers. A canal was turned from its bed so as to flow over the ruins and sweep the great city from the face of the earth. But

the next king ordered it to be rebuilt, and the new city was a finer one than the old city had ever been.

Babylon revenges Itself.—The time was soon to come when Babylon would be revenged. The enemies of Assyria were rising against it, and King Nabopolas'sar of Babylon joined with the King of Media and marched into Assyria.



Restoration of a Babylonian Temple.

The great city of Nin'eveh was taken and destroyed, and the empire of Assyria came to an end. This was about 606 B.C.

The Deeds of Nebuchadnezzar.—Nabopolassar was a great soldier and so was his son Nebuchadnez'zar, and between them they made a splendid city of Babylon and a powerful country of Babylonia. You may read about Nebuchadnezzar in the Bible, for he became a famous conqueror. After he had defeated the King of Egypt, he destroyed Jerusalem and carried all the people of the Hebrew

kingdom of Judah to Babylon, where they were kept for many years. He also took the great city of Tyre, after a siege lasting thirteen years.

Babylon in its Splendor.—Nebuchadnezzar made Babylon one of the greatest cities of the ancient world. He built a splendid palace and a great temple and the famous "hanging garden," which was one of the "Seven Wonders of the World." For this he had very high walls made, with a broad platform on top, on which earth was placed and trees were planted. This was done to please his wife, who came from the mountain country of Media and loved to see trees growing on the hills. The city was of very great size and was surrounded by vast walls three hundred and thirty-five feet high and eighty-five thick. In each side of the walls were twenty-five brass gates. The broad Euphrates River ran through the city and was guarded on both sides by walls, so that the city was very strong.

The Persian Conquest.—The kingdom of Babylon did not last very long after this. Nebuchadnezzar died and was followed by four other kings, and then the city was captured by the King of Persia, and the ancient kingdom lost its liberty. It was made part of the Persian Empire. But the city continued great and famous for many years afterwards, though in the end it fell into ruin so great that no one knew even where it stood. Its site was discovered only in our own days. Thus ended a kingdom which began in the gray old ages of antiquity and came down to the period of Grecian and Roman history. Though it passed away nearly two thousand five hundred years ago, no country has had so long a history, not even China, for this ancient land was thousands of years old before China began.

CHAPTER II

ASSYRIA

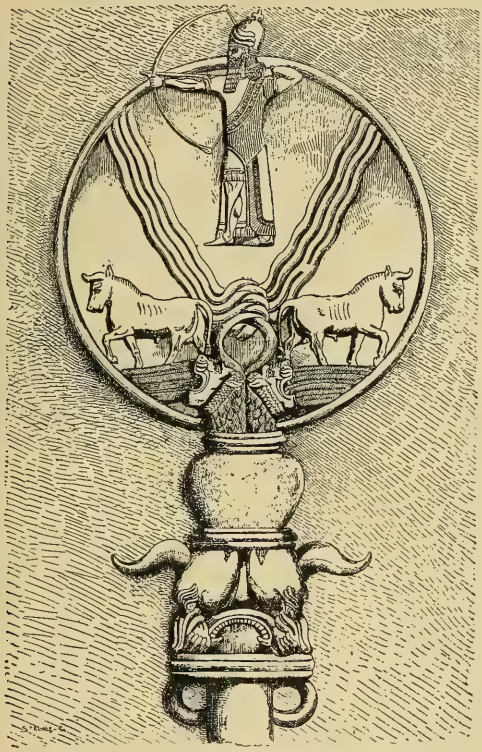
If we follow the Tigris River to the north, beyond the borders of Babylonia, we find ourselves within the limits of a new nation, which in time grew amazingly and became the first great empire of the earth. This is the far-famed Assyria, about which we have now to speak.

The Beginning of Assyria.—The Assyrian Empire began in a very modest way, as all empires do. Its first people seem to have come from the crowded Babylonian lowlands, and made their way into the higher and more rocky country which lay between the Tigris and the mountains to the east. How long ago this was no one can tell, but no doubt it was very far back in the past.

A Mighty Nation.—In those early days and for centuries later the Assyrians were under the rule of the Babylonian kings. But these kings had their own troubles and misfortunes, foreigners came in and conquered their country, and the Assyrians became a separate and independent nation. This may have been as early as 1500 B.C. For many centuries after that Assyria was the ruling country in that part of the world, and in the end it grew to be so warlike and powerful that all the nations trembled at its name. Its people were fierce and fond of war, and many of its kings were famous soldiers and conquerors.

An Assyrian Conqueror.—The kings of Assyria had long names, but they appear to have had long swords as well, and to have made much use of them. The first

famous soldier among them was Tig′lath-Pile′ser I., who began to reign about 1130 B.C. He had many wars, and gained many victories, and built palaces and castles and temples, and dug canals, and brought home cattle and plants



AN ASSYRIAN STANDARD.

from foreign countries, and carried away much wealth and many slaves, and was a very great and proud king.

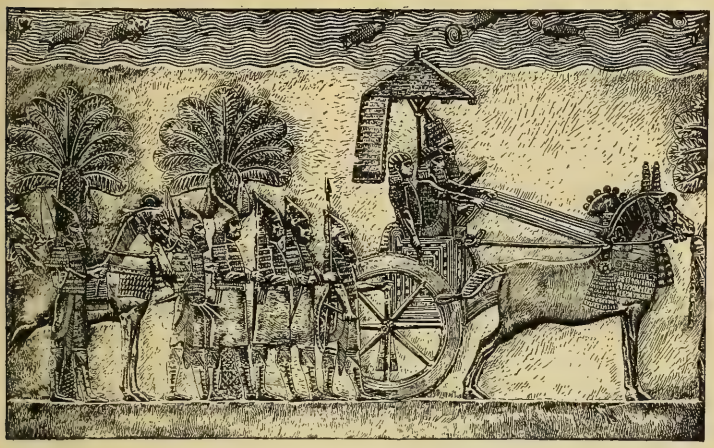
Later Kings.—More than two centuries passed by, and then came two or three strong kings, who made great con-

quests and spread the power of Assyria far to the north and the west, and gathered rich tribute from the nations. Some of them made Babylon yield to Assyria as its lord. Then more centuries passed, with now and then a mighty king, who won victories, and brought home spoil, and built rich palaces.

Sargon the Conqueror.—Most famous of them all was Sar'gon, who came to the throne in 722 B.C. He bore the same name as the famous old King of Babylonia, and like him was a great soldier and conqueror. One of the celebrated things he did was to conquer Samaria, in which dwelt what were known as the Ten Tribes of Israel. These he carried away into captivity. They never came back again, and are known to this day as the "lost tribes of Israel." He also conquered Egypt and made the proud Pharaohs pay tribute to Assyria. Then he had a large city built, to which he gave his own name, and dwelt there in a splendid palace. To-day this city is a great heap of ruins, but many statues and other relics have been found within the ruined walls of its old palace.

Sennacherib and his Armies.—Sargon died in 705 B.C., and his son, a warlike king named Sennach'erib, came to the throne. His name and some of his history may be read in the Bible, for his armies overran Palestine and took many of the walled cities of the Jews, from which great riches and many captives were carried off. He tells us of his doings in a boasting inscription, and says, "And Hezekiah himself [the King of Judea] I shut up in Jerusalem, his capital city, like a bird in a cage, building towers round the city to hem him in, and raising banks of earth against the gates, so as to prevent escape." But the King of Egypt came to the aid of Hezekiah, and the Assyrian army was

"smitten by the angel of the Lord." That is a Biblical way of saying that it met with a terrible disaster. So the proud king went back without glory to his kingdom, after losing a vast number of his soldiers.



SENNACHERIB AT THE HEAD OF HIS ARMY.

The Splendor of Nineveh.—Sennacherib was an active builder, like his father, and took a new city for his capital, which he made great and famous. Here let us say something about the cities of Assyria. For many centuries As'sur, or Ash'ur, was the capital city. It was far down on the banks of the Tigris. Then the great kings began to have capitals of their own. The grandest and most famous of them all was Nin'eveh, in which Sennacherib had his palace and his throne. It was an old place, but he built it up again until it was one of the most splendid cities of its time. He speaks of how he widened the streets and built royal edifices, and he tells us, in his boasting way, "I have made the whole town a city shining like the sun." Yet a sad end came to

this proud king after all his great deeds, for, when he had built himself a splendid palace, and expected to live there in pride and glory, he was murdered by his own sons.

A Vast, Loose Empire.—The empire of Assyria had now reached its greatest might and power. Its dominion spread far to the east, the west, and the south. All southwest Asia was under its control, and far-off Egypt had felt its conquering arms. But all it asked from its subject states was tribute and homage, and most of them were allowed to keep their own kings, who soon won back their liberty. So you may see that it was a very loose sort of an empire, with not much real strength. And even when it was at the height of its power its ruin was not far away.

The Palace of Sardanapalus.—The grandson of Sennacherib was named Ash'ur-ban'i-pal. He was called Sardanapa'lus by the Greeks, and, like the kings just named, he was a famous warrior. He built himself a magnificent palace in Nineveh, and on its walls were sculptured the scenes of his battles and sieges. These pictured stones have been found, and are very strange and wonderful. They are now in the British Museum. But much the best thing this king did was to place in his palace a royal library full of the writings of the authors of Assyria and Babylonia and of ancient Accad and Shumer. This also has been found, and from it we have learned much of what we know about those old countries.

The Fall of Nineveh.—Cruel were the kings of Assyria and terrible were the deeds they did. Many of their captives were put to death with frightful tortures, and the people of the nations hated them with a bitter hate. For nearly seven centuries they had been masters of Western Asia, whose people had a dozen times been plundered and treated with

savage cruelty. They were eager for revenge, and the time was at hand. Sar'acus, the son of Sardanapalus, and sometimes called Sardanapalus II., was the last of the Assyrian kings. With his reign came days of woe. A horde of barbarians from the north broke into his kingdom and spread terror through the land. From the east came the mountain tribes of Media, led by a famous warrior. From the south came the Babylonians to the aid of the Medes. Nineveh, the proud city from which had marched armies to besiege the nations, was itself besieged by the armies of its foes. The Tigris River rose and carried away part of its walls, the host of avengers broke in, and the splendid city was given to rack and ruin. The Greek writers tell us that King Saracus, in despair, built a funeral pyre in his palace, on which he placed himself, his treasures, and his favorite wives, and then set fire to the pile and perished in the flames. But we must say that, though this story has long been told, no historian believes it to-day.



HEAD OF ASHURBANIPAL.

How Glory comes and goes.—Thus, in blood and flames, Nineveh the Proud, one of the most magnificent cities of the ancient world, passed away, and with it the great empire of Assyria vanished and sank into oblivion. The very name of

the empire before which so many nations had trembled soon passed out of men's minds. It was about the year 606 B.C. that Nineveh fell. Two hundred years later a Greek soldier named Xenophon (Zen'o-fon) passed the place where the city had stood and saw only a huge heap of ruins. He asked its name, but no one was able to tell him. What a commentary on the pride of the nations is this! Only two centuries gone, and the very name of the mighty city, which seemed built for all time, was forgotten even by those who lived beside its ruins. Thus the glory of the nations comes and goes.

THE ARTS OF THE BABYLONIANS AND ASSYRIANS.

You must now be told something more about the arts and civilization of the very ancient Sumerians and Accadians and their successors, the Babylonians and Assyrians. The Babylonians lived in a country in which there was no stone. But they had plenty of good clay, from which bricks could be made, and they had wells of bitumen, which made very good mortar. So their buildings were made of bricks, most of them dried in the sun, though some were hardened by fire. For their temples they built a sort of high tower or pyramid, in two or three terraces or stages, the temple itself standing on a broad platform on top. These have been washed by centuries of rain, which has turned many of their soft bricks back into clay, so that they now form huge and shapeless mounds of bricks and earth. Many of them are scattered over the country, looking like natural hills. But each mark where a city once stood, with its temples and its homes, and by digging deep into these clay mounds great numbers of interesting objects have been found.

The Libraries of Old Chaldea.—The most interesting things found in these ruined cities are their libraries, about

which you will certainly like to hear. You have read of how the people made tablets of clay and stamped them with letters and words. These tablets were flat or pillow-shaped, from one to twelve inches long and one inch thick. Writing was done on both sides, and they were paged as we page books, and laid on one another on the shelves of the library, one book sometimes covering many tablets. It is likely that many of the people could read and write, and every city had its library. People went there to read, giving the librarian the number of the book they wanted, or maybe they could take the book home, as we do from our libraries. So we may see that the world has not gone ahead as fast as one might think.

What their Books were about.—You will, no doubt, like to know what these very ancient books were about. Well, there was not much history in them, and so we do not know much about the history of the people. But there was a great deal about their religion, and about astrology and astronomy and arithmetic, all of which they studied. And there were accounts of the Creation, and the Garden of Eden, and the Tree of Life, and the Deluge, and the Tower of Babel, something like those in the Bible. There were many hymns and psalms, and there was a great epic poem, in twelve parts or books, made up of stories of the gods and heroes. Besides these there were stories in prose, and letters, and business accounts, and legal documents, and much besides. There were words at the top of each tablet to show what book it belonged to, just as our books have words at the top of the page.

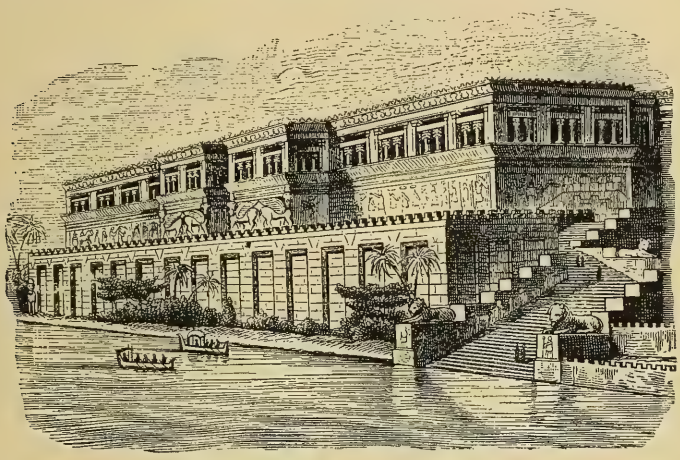
The Industries of Chaldea.—This ancient people were busy workers and had many useful arts. They knew how to work in gold and silver and other metals, and to weave

woollen cloth and rugs, and they had smiths and carpenters and dyers and potters, and many other trades. They had much commerce, too. Caravans were sent far to the east and the west, and brought back useful goods of many kinds, while they took away the rugs and cloth and other things made by the people. And ships were sent to sea, to trade along the shores of the Persian Gulf. We read about the "Ships of Ur," and the Bible speaks of "the Chaldeans, whose cry is in the ships." But farming was the great work of the country, and many slaves were kept, who worked on the land. It is pleasant to know that they were well treated. There were palaces, and large and fine houses, but most of the people lived in mud huts and wore very little clothing. They did not need much, for their country was a warm one.

The Assyrian Arts.—If we come now to Assyria, we shall find the people using sun-dried bricks in their houses and palaces, the same as the Babylonians. But their country was among the hills, and they lined the walls of their fine buildings with slabs of stones, and had great stone images of men and lions and bulls with human heads at their doorways. They lived in much more style and splendor than in the older country. Clay tablets were used for books, and also stone and metal, for they had chisels with which they could cut the letters into these hard substances, or carve pictures on the walls of the palace rooms, or make huge stone statues of animals and men.

The Library of Nineveh.—The library found at Nineveh contained fully ten thousand books. On some of the tablets the writing is so fine that it can be read only with the aid of a magnifying glass. We know that the Assyrians had such glasses, for one of them has been found. Most of the

books in this library were copied from the Babylonian ones, for the Assyrians thought as much of this ancient literature as we do of the literature of Greece and Rome, and kept and studied it with great care. Among them are many text-books for scholars, on such subjects as spelling, grammar, and the like. And there is much about the history of



Restoration of an Assyrian Palace.

Assyria, for the people of that country cared more about their history than the older people did. One part of the library held public documents, such as treaties, reports, contracts, mortgages, deeds, and other business papers, much like those of our own times, and even a will made by King Sennacherib. This is the oldest of all known wills.

What the Assyrians knew.—The Assyrians had many arts which were not known to the Babylonians. They knew far more about building and painting and sculpture. They could carve finely in ivory and on hard stones, and knew how to make glass, to build aqueducts, and to use the lever

and other mechanical powers. The alabaster walls of their palaces were painted in brilliant colors and the ceilings were gilded and inlaid with ivory. Their chairs and tables were elegant in design and of rich materials, and their houses were often finely ornamented. No nation of the past knew more about weaving and embroidering, while their vases, cups, etc., were beautifully made. In fact, they were far advanced in the arts, and knew how to live not only in comfort, but also in refinement and luxury.

Science of the Babylonians.—The people of Shumer and Accad knew much about science. They watched and studied the movements of the stars, and could tell when eclipses of the sun and moon would come. They knew just the length of the year, and though their twelve months were each thirty days' long, they made the year come right by adding an extra month at the proper time. We owe to them our week of seven days, and the length of our hours, minutes, and seconds. The day ran from one sunrise to the next, and was made up of twelve double hours of sixty minutes each. All their measures were based on one standard, the hand-breadth, and were not nearly so confused and intricate as ours. In fact, we owe much more than many suppose to this old nation, that went on in its slow way for thousands of years with not much more change than we have now in a single century.

SUMMARY OF BABYLONIAN AND ASSYRIAN HISTORY.

1. First Babylonian Kingdom founded before 5000 B.C.—Early Kings.

Enshagsagana	4500 B.C.
Lugalzaggisi	4000 "
Sargon	3800 "
Naram Sin	3750 "

Ur Gur	3000	B.C.
Dungi I.	2950	"
Ur-ea (Uruch)	2800	"
Dungi II.	2750	"
City of Babylon becomes important	2400	"
Elamite conquest of Babylonia	2286	"
Khammurabi defeats the Elamites	2250	"
Babylon becomes the capital of Accad	2250	"
Chaldean tribes conquer Babylonia	2000	"
Chaldean dynasty	2000–1543	"
Arabian dynasty	1543–1298	"
Assyrian conquest	1298	"

2. ASSYRIAN EMPIRE.

Assyria becomes dominant	1298	"
FAMOUS KINGS.		
Tiglath-Pileser I.	1130	"
Shalmaneser	858	"
Tiglath-Pileser II.	745	"
Final conquest of Babylonia	728	"
Sargon	722	"
Sennacherib	705	"
Babylon destroyed	690	"
Esarhaddon	681	"
Ashurbanipal (Sardanapalus)	668	"
Saracus (Sardanapalus II.)	626	"
Conquest of Assyria by Media and Babylonia	625	"

3. SECOND BABYLONIAN KINGDOM—FAMOUS KINGS.

Nabopolassar (the conqueror of Assyria)	625	"
Nebuchadnezzar	604	"
Nabonadius Belshazzar	555	"
Babylon conquered by the Persians	538	"

CHAPTER III

EGYPT

Let us now turn our attention to another very old nation, that dwelt in the famous ancient land of Egypt. In some ways this is like the country you have been told about, for it also owes its history to a great river, which flows through its midst and spreads life-giving waters over its fertile fields. This river is the noble one called the Nile, which comes from far away in Central Africa and here flows in a splendid stream through a narrow belt of rich land, while deserts of sand stretch far away on either side. That narrow belt and the river between form what we know as Egypt.

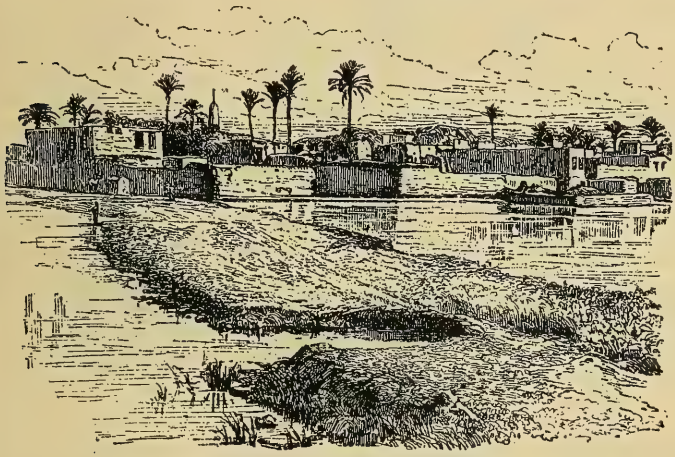


Map of Egypt.

The Egyptian Race.— Though the Egyptians lived in Africa, they did not belong to the African or black race, but were white people, and in some ways like the ancient Babylonians. Some scholars think they came from the Babylonian country very

long ago, long enough for them to work out a language of their own quite different from the Semitic type of speech. But of all this we know very little and are not likely to know.

The Age of Egypt.—If you ask when the people of Egypt became civilized and began to have a written history, we cannot tell you, and, in fact, nobody can. It lies too far back in the mists of time. The first king we know any-

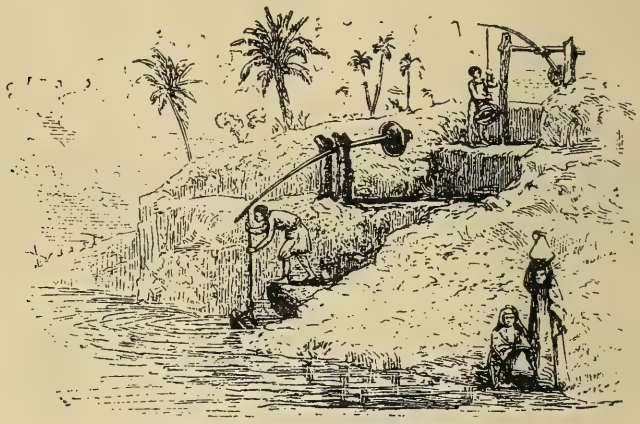


THE NILE DURING AN INUNDATION.

thing about was named Menes. Many writers say he reigned about 2700 B.C., but there are some who think that the date of his reign goes back as far as 5700 B.C. Here is a gap of three thousand years which it is not easy to fill, but there is reason to think that Menes lived at a much earlier period than 2700 B.C. Egypt may have had a long history before this time, though we know nothing about it. It may go back to the early days of Accad and Shumer. Far before the time of Menes there were many little city kingdoms like those of Babylonia. He was the first to bring them together

into one state, and with him the known history of Egypt began.

How Egypt differed from Babylonia.—There is a wonderful difference between Egypt and Babylonia, as we find them to-day. If we travel along the Euphrates and the Tigris in search of their old kingdoms we meet only with huge heaps



Watering the Fields with the Shadoof.

of clay and bricks, deep within which their treasures of art lie buried. But if we journey along the Nile we meet with vast stone temples and pyramids, and giant statues, and hundreds of graves cut deep into the solid rock. These are wonderful to behold, and they made Egpyt famous for its marvels long before we knew anything about the ruins of Babylonia and Assyria. We have now to tell something about the builders of these mighty stone monuments.

The Kings of Egypt.—Menes is a king of shadows. We know very little about him. He is said to have built the city of Mem′phis and made it his capital and kept the river out of it by great dykes and other engineering works.

After him came hundreds of kings, divided into many dynasties, or different royal families. But we know no more about the most of these kings than we do about those of old Babylonia. Those best known are the famous builders to whom we owe the pyramids and other works.

Kufu and his Pyramid.—The greatest and most famous of the pyramids are the three which stand at Gizeh (Ghe′zeh) near the modern city of Cairo. They were built by kings of



THE GREAT PYRAMID.

the Fourth Dynasty, and one of these is the largest edifice ever built by the hand of man. It is square at the base, each side being 764 feet long, and slopes up to a point, the height being 450 feet. It was built by a king named Ku′fu, or, as the Greeks called him, Cheops (Ke′ops). His name has been found where the workmen painted it on some of the stones. This great work was built for a tomb, and no other man has ever been so grandly buried as Kufu.

The Work of the Theban Kings.—For several centuries after that we know very little about the history of Egypt. We must go on to the Twelfth Dynasty, which came somewhere about 2300 B.C., for anything of importance. Some of

the kings of this dynasty were powerful and ambitious. They changed the capital from Memphis, on the lower Nile, to Thebes, far up that river. This great city was called by the Greeks "The Hundred-gated Thebes," and no doubt it was very large and handsome. The kings of Thebes were great builders. One of them built the vast Labyrinth, a building with three thousand chambers. Any one in the centre of that building might wander for months in trying to get out, if he did not starve in the effort. He had also a lake dug named Mœris (Me'ris) to carry off the extra water of the Nile. He filled it with fish and planted around it vineyards and orchards and gardens, and made it a place of great beauty.

The Shepherd Kings.—About the year 2100 B.C. a great misfortune came to the old kingdom. A vast horde of people from the desert of Syria marched in and conquered Lower Egypt, which they held for nearly four hundred years. These are known as Hyk'sos or Shepherd Kings, and were rude barbarians, who did much damage to the grand monuments of the country. But in time they became civilized and took up the ways of the Egyptians. It was likely during their time that Abraham, the ancestor of the Hebrews or Jews, visited Egypt, and found there a fine and flourishing country, and it was while they were there that Joseph and his brethren came to Egypt. The story of the Hebrews and the Pharaohs, as it is told in the Bible, seems to have taken place in a later period than that of the Hyksos.

The New Empire.—The time came at length when the Hyksos kings were driven from Egypt. This was done about 1650 B.C., by Amo'sis, a descendant of the old kings of Thebes, who became the first king of the Eighteenth Dynasty. The old empire had passed away and what is

known as the New Empire now began. It was the most powerful and splendid period in Egyptian history. The old Pharaohs had been as much priests as kings, and had kept within the borders of their own land, their great works being their buildings. But the new ones set out as warriors and conquerors, leading powerful armies into Asia and seeking to conquer its civilized countries.

Rameses the Great.—The most famous of these warriors was Ram′eses II., or Rameses the Great, called Sesos′tris by



Head of Mummy of Rameses II.

the Greeks. There are many stories told about the wars which this king carried on in Africa and Asia, and there is a long poem telling about some of his exploits, the whole of which is cut into the stone walls of several temples. His greatest war was against the Hit′tites, who dwelt in the

mountains of northern Syria. These proved too strong for him, so he made a treaty with them, and married a daughter of the Hittite king.

The Great Theban Monuments.—But the Theban kings did not spend all their time in fighting. They were great builders as well. Two of them, Thoth'mes III. and Seti I., built the most magnificent temple in the world, whose majestic ruins still stand at Kar'nak, near Thebes. Seti also made for himself, in the Valley of the Tombs of the Kings, the largest and most beautiful of all rock-cut tombs. Another of his great works was a canal from the Nile to the Red Sea, which was finished by Rameses, his son. Many of the lofty obelisks of Egypt were also erected by these kings, whose reigns began about 1500 B.C.

The Assyrian Conquest.—Rameses II. was the last great conqueror. Centuries passed during which the glory and splendor of Egypt declined. The nation at length became so feeble that it was conquered by the Assyrians and forced to pay tribute to their kings. But about 666 B.C. Psammet'ichus, the first king of the Twenty-sixth Dynasty, drove out the Assyrians and set the country free. He got Greek soldiers to help him in this, and this made the soldiers of Egypt so angry that more than two hundred thousand of them left the country and settled in Ethiopia, a country to the south. Up to that time Egypt had been kept closed against foreigners, but afterwards the Greeks had much to do there in commercial and other ways. Ne'cho, the next king, was an able monarch. He tried to dig out again the old canal of Seti and Rameses, but gave it up after more than one hundred thousand men had died. He also sent out a fleet which is said to have sailed around the Cape of Good Hope, and was the first to circumnavigate Africa.

The End of Egyptian Freedom.—Egypt had now been a free country, governed by kings of its own race, for several thousand years—except for the few centuries when it was under the Shepherd and the Assyrian kings. For a time it had held an extensive empire in Asia, but its period of freedom was near an end. A new power invaded the old kingdom, the strong young empire of Persia. Camby'ses, a Persian king, led an army to the Nile in 525 B.C., defeated the army of Egpyt, and made the country his own. A century afterwards the Persians were driven out, but they came back and conquered the land again about 340 B.C. That was the end of the reign of the Pharaohs. Alexander the Great followed the Persians, and after him came the Romans and then the Arabs, and from that day to this no king of Egyptian blood has sat upon the throne.

THE ARTS AND CULTURE OF EGYPT.

The Land of Egypt.—Egypt is a very strange country. It is all length and no breadth. It consists of the Nile River and a narrow tract of land on each side, with the great sandy desert beyond. Every year for ages past the river has overflowed its banks and left a thick deposit of mud. This mud is very fertile. Immense crops of grain can be raised in it. Thus, in the past, millions of people could be fed and the banks of the mighty stream swarmed with busy inhabitants. It was this people, with their priests and rulers, their armies and artisans, that made the famous old kingdom of Egypt, whose history has just been given.

The Mighty Monuments.—This ancient kingdom passed away long ago. The descendants of its people remain, but its proud princes, its splendid cities, its conquering armies are gone, never to return. But for all that, old Egypt lives.

The traveller along the Nile to-day sees traces of it all around him. There stand the giant pyramids, which were likely built five or six thousand years ago. There is the great Sphinx, a monstrously large stone lion, with a woman's head, cut out of the solid rock and so large that a small temple stood between its paws. There are lofty obelisks, each of them cut out of a single stone. There are mighty temples, with grand columns and spacious halls. There are

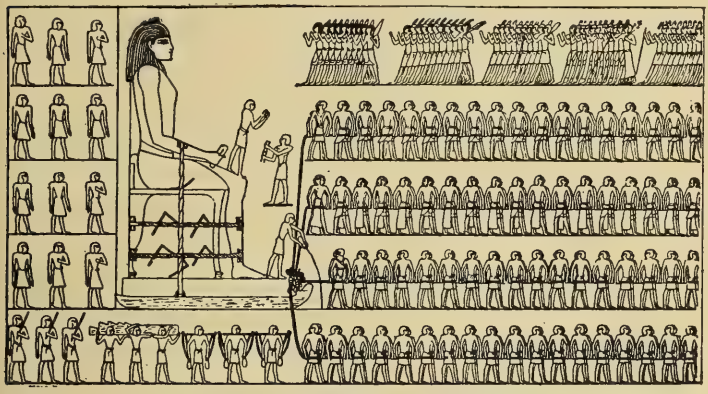


An Egyptian Sphinx.

huge statues of the kings, which look as if they had been made by the hands of giants. There are great tombs, with painted chambers and avenues cut deep in the solid rock. You will need to read whole books to learn about them, and if you should see them your eyes would open wide with wonder, for there is nothing like them elsewhere upon the earth.

Vast Labors of the People.—From this you may learn that the Egyptians were great builders. They tried to go

beyond all other peoples in the grandeur of their buildings and their sculptures, and the work of their hands is so vast and solid that it will stand to be gazed at with admiration for ages to come. They knew how to cut huge blocks of stone from their quarries, to chisel them into great slabs for buildings, or round them into mighty pillars, or carve them into vast statues. Then these were drawn hundreds of miles from the quarries and lifted into their places by the labor of hundreds of thousands of men. The proud old

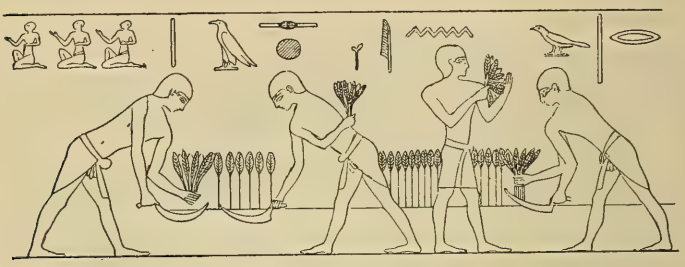


TRANSPORTING A STATUE IN ANCIENT EGYPT.

kings were cruel. They did not care if hosts of people perished in this terrible labor, if only they could build something that would excite the wonder of the world for ages to come.

The Artisans at Work.—This is not all the Egyptians could do. They had many arts and industries in which they did excellent work. They knew how to weave cotton and linen cloth, to work in copper and brass, to make fine glassware and pottery, and to do many other useful things. Paintings in the tombs more than four thousand years old

show us the glass-blowers at work making all kinds of objects, and glass bottles and many other things made of glass have been found. They knew how to color their glass beautifully and to imitate precious stones very closely. And in their paintings workers may be seen doing dozens of other things. We see the carpenter with his tools, the butcher sharpening his knife, the musician playing his harp,



A Harvest Scene in Egypt.

the fisherman throwing his lines, the farmer, the hunter, the worker in gold and silver, and numerous things besides.

Reading and Writing.—Do you ask about the great art which is more important than all other arts, the art of reading and writing? This the Egyptians possessed very long ago, or we should know much less of their history than we do. They learned how to put down their thoughts in hieroglyphics, or picture writing, many thousands of years in the past, perhaps as long ago as the old Babylonian writing, perhaps longer. When we get so far back as that we know nothing about dates or years.

How Writing was done.—The writing of the Egyptians is very different from that of the Babylonians. It did not have to be stamped on clay, but was written on a kind of paper called papy'rus, made from a reed that grows along

the Nile. Their writing was done with a pointed reed, dipped in ink, so that it was somewhat like our own pen. In the old writings the pictures of natural objects, such as birds, men, buildings, etc., are carefully made. Later on they used simpler styles of writing, which could be done much faster. They wrote on many other things besides papyrus, such as leather, tiles, stones, and tablets of wood. And they cut historical and other writings with chisels on the stone walls of their temples and the pillars of their obelisks. The stone used was very hard, but they managed to cut it deeply with their chisels. Written rolls of papyrus were also buried in the tombs and the coffins of the dead, and many of these have been discovered in modern times.

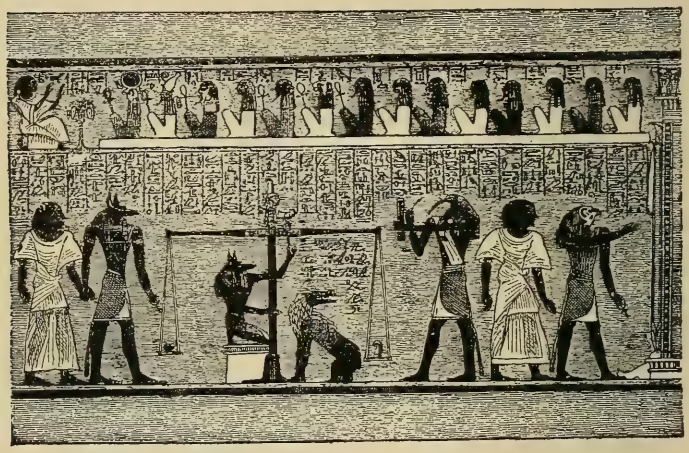
How the Hieroglyphics were read.—Now let us say a word more about the written language of the Egyptians. They wrote in words, not in letters. At first every sign stood for a word. Later on some of the signs stood for syllables, and still later some of them stood for letters, but all through many of the signs meant whole words. It was long before any one in modern times knew how to read this strange writing, but about a hundred years ago a stone—the Rosetta Stone—was found in Alexandria, Egypt, that had an inscription on it in three forms, one being Greek and the others two different forms of Egyptian writing. The Greek served as a key to the others, and



An Egyptian Scribe.

in that way men of science learned how to read the hieroglyphics.

The Book of the Dead.—The writings of the Egyptians are very interesting in showing us what kind of people they were and what they thought about matters and things. They did not leave us great libraries like the Babylonians, but for all that we have many of their books and inscrip-



Weighing the Actions of the Soul.

tions. The most famous of them is the "Book of the Dead," copies of which were placed in the mummy-cases. It tells the soul what it must do in its journey to its future home, and teaches men to beware of idleness and lying and selfishness and other faults. There is another famous book, more than four thousand years old, which is full of good advice to the young and the old alike. We can see from these that the ancient Egyptians knew what was right and what was wrong as well as we do to-day.

The Literature of Egypt.—The Egyptians knew something about science, and wrote on astronomy and mathematics and medicine. They were busy letter-writers also, and many of their letters have been preserved. They had their poets, like most ancient nations, and have left us beautiful hymns, and one long poem, called the "Epic of Pentaur." This tells about the deeds of Rameses II., and that warlike king was so proud of it that he had it engraved on the walls of a number of temples. They had also works on history, and stories and fables and fairy-tales. One of these is like "Cinderella and the Glass Slipper," and some of their stories are interesting and amusing. No doubt they had much to read, for what we have are only a few of their writings.

Ideas about the Future Life.—Of all the nations of the past the Egyptians were one of the most religious. They must have spent much of their time in worshipping the gods and in preparing for the future life. They believed that the body, as well as the soul, would live again, and they tried to keep the body so that it would be ready when the soul came to join it. Before telling how they did this, we must speak of their religious ideas.

The Gods and Sacred Animals.—There were supposed to be many gods, each of which had charge of some part of the universe or something to do on the earth. These were divided into groups of three, the most important group being Osiris, Isis his wife, and Horus their son. Certain animals, which were held to be emblems of the gods, were worshipped. The beetle was very sacred, as an emblem of the sun or of life. The death of a dog or a cat was mourned as a misfortune, and when the sacred bull, or apis, died, the people were in deep trouble. This animal was

thought to be a real god, and was buried in an immense granite coffin, in a large chamber cut deep into the rocks.

The Priests and Kings.—We may be sure that in a nation so religious as this the priests had great power. The king was at first as much priest as king, and all who came near him fell down and touched the ground with their noses, as though he were a god himself. They called him the "lord of heaven and life of the whole world," and by many similar titles. The priests were rich, powerful, and



THE ISLAND OF PHILÆ.

learned. All the science and learning of the land were in their hands. They were teachers, lawyers, and doctors, as well as priests. They ruled the living, and were thought to have the power to open and shut the gates of happiness to the dead.

The Temple of Karnak.—There is one thing that shows the character of the Egyptians. Their great buildings were

not palaces, as in Assyria, but temples and tombs. There is no more magnificent building in the world than the great Temple of Karnak, near Thebes. It took more than five hundred years to build this grand edifice. Its great feature is its mighty Hall of Columns, which has one hundred and sixty-four vast pillars, some of them being over seventy feet high and measuring sixty-five feet around their tops.

The Tombs of the Kings.—Their tombs were as grand as their temples. The great pyramids were built as burial places for kings. The later kings were buried in great rock tombs, cut with immense labor into chambers and passages, and their walls painted with pictures of life in Egypt. In the hills back of Thebes is a place called the Valley of the Tombs of the Kings, where there are twenty-five splendid sepulchres. Here are long passages and extensive chambers, richly painted and sculptured. Not many years ago (in 1881) the mummies of Seti I., Rameses II., and many other kings of the New Empire were found in a secret cave near Thebes. They seem to have been taken from the royal tombs in some time of danger and hidden there. For some reason, after the danger passed, they were not brought back, and they may be seen in our day in the Boulak Museum at Cairo, their faces so well preserved that their old courtiers might well know them, if they could come back to earth to see them.

How Mummies were made.—It is very likely you know what a mummy is, for many of them have been brought from Egypt to this country, and are to be seen in the museums of the great cities. But you will wish to know how they were made and why this was done. Well, it was believed by the Egyptians that after a very long time, several thousand years, the soul would come back to earth and enter its former

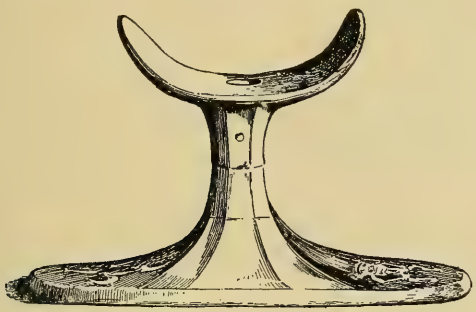
body, which would become alive again. So they tried to keep the body until this time. After death, the body was embalmed by the use of oils and resin and bitumen and aromatic gums. Then it was wrapped closely in bandages of linen. The face was sometimes gilded or covered with a gold mask, and the mummy was put in a wooden or stone case or coffin and laid away in a rock tomb. As for the poor people, who could not afford such costly methods, the bodies of their dead were "salted and dried," wrapped in coarse mats, and buried in the desert sands. As we think to-day, they had as good a chance in the future life as the Pharaohs who were buried in the pyramids.

The Sacred Lake.—There was one important thing in the Egyptian burial customs. The wicked were refused burial, whether they were kings or peasants. This must have helped much to make men live a good life. Near every large city there was a sacred lake, over which the corpse had to be carried in a boat to the burial place. But near by there sat a court of forty-two judges, who inquired into the past life of the deceased. If an evil life was proved, the lake could not be crossed and the body had to be taken back in disgrace. Only after the gods had been pacified by gifts and devotion and by the prayers of the priests could the body be buried.

The Tribunal of Osiris.—There was supposed to be another court made up of gods, with Osiris at its head, and before this the soul was brought for trial. Here the heart was placed in a balance with a figure of truth in the other scale. If the beam turned in favor of the heart, happiness was the soul's lot. If the beam sank the other way, the unhappy soul was devoured by a frightful monster and ceased to exist; or, if not very wicked, it might return to

the earth, and pass a long life in the bodies of animals. This is what is called transmigration. The soul was asked if it had been idle or intoxicated, had told lies or revealed secrets, had cheated or slandered, had caused tears to fall, or had not given anything to charity. The Egyptians, you may see, had a good school of morals.

Character of the People.—The Egyptians were not the grave and gloomy people we might expect in a nation that thought so much of death and the grave. We can tell from their pictures that they could laugh and joke and were very fond of festivals and holidays. They were polite and gentle,



An Egyptian Pillow.

and paid much reverence to those older and higher in rank. They seem to have had many feasts, and the paintings show them sitting before small tables, with meat, fruit, cakes, and other food on them, while servants put lotus-flowers on their heads, and dancers and musicians amused them. Their women were treated well, and were not such slaves as they are in many countries of Asia. On the whole, the Egyptians were a very good sort of people and very likely enjoyed life and passed their time pleasantly.

SUMMARY OF EGYPTIAN HISTORY.

First Dynasty, Date variously estimated from 5700 to 2700 B.C.

Menes, first (traditional) king.		
Kufu I. (the Great Pyramid builder), about	2700	B.C.
Theban kings (Twelfth Dynasty), about	2300 to 2100	"
Hyksos or Shepherd conquest, about	2100	"
Hyksos dynasty, about	2100 to 1650	"
Abraham visits Egypt, about	1900	"
The Hebrews settle in Egypt, about	1700	"
The Hyksos kings expelled, about	1650	"
Amosis (Eighteenth Dynasty), about	1650	"
The most brilliant centuries of Egyptian history	1650 to 1280	"
Thothmes III., about	1500	"
Seti I., about	1400	"
Rameses the Great	1388	"
Menephtha (exodus of the Hebrews), about	1300	"
Assyrian conquest, about	680	"
Psammeticus (drives out the Assyrians)	666	"
Necho	612	"
Persian conquest	525	"
Second Persian conquest	340	"
Macedonian conquest	332	"
Reigns of the Ptolemies (Greek kings)	323-30	"
Egypt becomes a Roman province on the death of Cleopatra	30	"

CHAPTER IV

PALESTINE AND PHŒNICIA

The Syrian Nations.—We must now leave for a while the great nations and deal with some of the small ones. But those we shall deal with were small only in size; in some ways they were greater than the famous empires of Assyria and Egypt, between which they lay. West of Assyria was a country in which there dwelt various tribes, and which is now known by the general name of Syria. In very old times the part of it which lay along the Mediterranean Sea was known as the land of Canaan. Later on it was inhabited by the Hebrews, the Philistines, and the Phœnicians; while farther east was Syria, with the famous city of Damascus for its capital.

The Extent of Palestine.—Any one who has read the Bible must know a great deal about one of these nations, that of the Hebrews, whose story is given in that noble book. Their country, known to us as Palestine, was a quite small one, only one hundred and forty-five miles long, and not more than fifty miles wide. Yet this little country played a great part in the world's history, and we know more and care more about the story of the Hebrews than about the mighty empires surrounding them.

Abraham and his Descendants.—The patriarch Abraham, the ancestor of the Hebrews, came from the city of Ur in Babylonia about 2000 B.C. He went west with his family and servants to the land of Canaan, and wandered about from pasture to pasture, seeking food for his flocks. The

book of Genesis tells about him and his descendants, and how one of them named Joseph became a great man in Egypt. This was in the time of the Shepherd kings. The Hebrews, as Joseph and his people were called, grew at length to be very numerous, and after the Shepherd kings were driven out of Egypt they were badly treated by the new kings.

The Promised Land.—Another of the books of the Bible, the book of Exodus, tells how the Hebrews left Egypt, led by Moses, a learned and able and very religious man. For many years they wandered in the deserts of Arabia, and then they came to the land of Canaan. Here Abraham, their famous ancestor, had long lived, and they read in their books that God had promised them this land, so they set out to conquer it. They had a skilful general named Joshua, but it took six years of hard fighting to overcome the Canaanites and destroy their strong walled cities. But in the end they became masters of the country, and divided it between their twelve tribes. These bore the names of Joseph and his brothers, who were twelve in number. All this happened a long time ago, as far back as the year 1300 B.C.

The Judges of Israel.—We do not know very much about what the Hebrews were doing in the two hundred years that followed. Very likely the tribes did not agree well together, for as yet they were quite warlike. We are told, "There was no king in Is'rael; every man did that which was right in his own eyes." Israel was one of the names given them, but they had no common government, though at times strong leaders arose who ruled all the land and were called judges. The last of these was the prophet Samuel.

A King given Them.—The time came at length when this people asked for a king. The tribes of Canaan were still seeking to drive them out, and the Philistines, a war-like people along the sea-coast, gave them much trouble. They wanted a king to lead them to war and make them a powerful nation, and Samuel, the prophet, chose them one named Saul, who was a strong man and a good fighter. For forty years Saul fought the enemies of his people, and when he died in battle and left the crown to David, his successor, the tribes had become a strong and united nation.



JERUSALEM.

David the Warrior and Poet.—David was the great warrior of the Israelites. The prophet Samuel had chosen him, as he chose Saul. Under David the new nation became powerful. The Philistines were conquered and the troublesome tribes of the desert were driven back and their land taken, till the country was much larger than before. Jerusalem was chosen for the capital city, and Jehovah was worshipped as the God of Israel. David was a poet as well as a soldier, and many of the magnificent psalms of the Bible are said to have been written by him.

Solomon the Wise.—When David died his son Solomon took the throne. Under him the people of Israel became more civilized than before, and made themselves known far and wide. He was not a great warrior like his father, but he gained wide fame for wisdom, and his reign was the most splendid in the history of the Jews. He sent ships to India and Arabia, and perhaps still farther, and brought much gold and precious wares into the country. He built a splendid palace at Jerusalem, and a temple which was renowned for its beauty and magnificence. The celebrated cedar of Lebanon was used in it, and the King of Tyre sent his best workmen to help build it. We are told that the Queen of Sheba came from the south of Arabia to visit King Solomon, the story of whose wisdom and splendor had reached her. When she saw Jerusalem and heard Solomon's wise talk, she cried out, "The half was not told me." But this great king surrounded himself with luxury and filled his palace with wives, and turned away from the worship of Jehovah, and taxed the people until they were ready to rebel. So perhaps he was not so very wise, after all.

The Kingdom breaks up.—After Solomon died the splendor of his kingdom soon passed away. It is well you should know when this took place, and we may say that it was about 1000 B.C., a thousand years after Abraham had left Ur, and a thousand before the time of Christ. Solomon's son Rehobo'am was a tyrant. When the people asked to have their heavy taxes taken off, he said to them, in anger, "My father chastised you with whips, but I will chastise you with scorpions." He was, as you may see, not only a proud but a foolish young king. When the people heard of his words ten of the tribes broke into rebellion and set up a new kingdom of their own. This was called the kingdom of Israel.

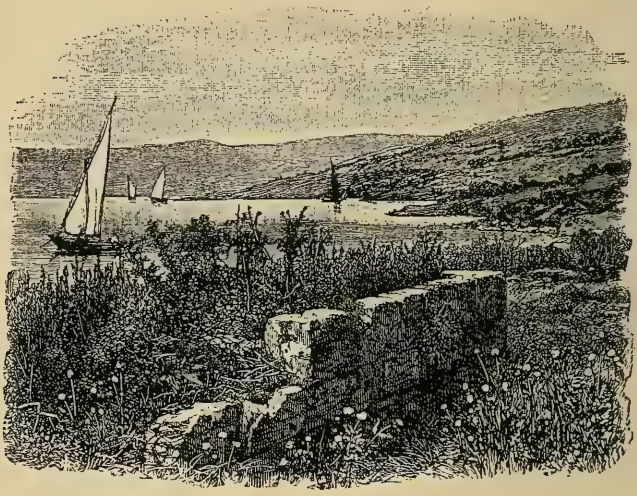
Only two tribes remained under the insolent young king. These were called the kingdom of Judah, and their country was known as Judea.

The Ten Lost Tribes.—After that the Hebrews were no longer a strong nation. The kingdom of Israel lasted for about two hundred and fifty years, and had nineteen kings in all, eight of whom were killed. Then Sargon, the king of Assyria, came and conquered the country and carried away all its people beyond the Euphrates. That is the last we know of the Ten Tribes of Israel. They have been sought for in later times, but no trace of them has ever been found. Their country was filled up with other people, who became known as Samar'itans.

The Fate of Judea.—The kingdom of Judah lasted for about four hundred years and had many kings, all but one of whom descended from David. But on its two sides were the warlike empires of Assyria and Egypt, and this little country could not hope to remain independent. We have told you how the Assyrians overran and plundered the country and shut up King Hezekiah in Jerusalem "like a bird in a cage." In the end Nebuchadnezzar, the famous King of Babylon, took Jerusalem and destroyed it. The splendid temple of Solomon was levelled with the ground, and the people were carried off to Babylonia. That was a way those old emperors had of dealing with rebellious nations. They took the people away to their own country and left nobody to rebel.

The Hebrews in Exile.—It was now the year 586 B.C. The existence of the Hebrews as an independent nation was at an end, except for a short time long afterwards. The empires around were growing too great for a small land like that to be left in freedom. The people of Judea were kept

in the land of Babylon about seventy years, but were not badly treated. Then Cyrus, the great Persian king, conquered Babylon and let them go home again and build up their city and their temple.



The Lake of Galilee.

The End of the Hebrew Nation.—After that the Jews or Hebrews were a part of several empires, first the Persian, then the Macedonian, then the Roman. In 165 B.C. a general named Judas Maccabe'us led them to victory, and they were free for half a century or more. But Pompey, a Roman general, conquered them, and brought them into the empire of Rome. After this Christ lived on the earth and a world-religion was given to the Jews, to be taught by them to the other nations. But, seventy years afterwards, they broke into rebellion and the Roman general Titus was sent to subdue them. They fought like lions for their liberty and

their religion, but in the end Jerusalem was taken and destroyed and vast numbers of the people were killed. The remainder were driven out of the country, and thus the old kingdom of Judea came to a final end.

HEBREW RELIGION AND LITERATURE.

The Record of the Hebrews.—The Hebrews had few of the arts of the surrounding nations. They were an agricultural people, and knew little about the arts of building or manufacture or about the sciences. They made no statues,



THE MOUNT OF OLIVES.

for their religion forbade the making of "graven images." Solomon had to borrow workmen from the king of Tyre to build his temple, and sailors for his ships. But for all this the Hebrews made their mark in the world in a wonderful way, for they left us the noblest religious literature of the world, and the religion of all the enlightened nations of modern times came from them.

The One Great God.—While the nations surrounding Palestine had numbers of gods,—gods of the earth, the air,

the water, the sun, moon, and stars, and of many things besides,—the Hebrews had but one deity, the great Jehovah. They looked on Him as their special God, but in time He grew to be the God of the civilized world. There were many idolaters among them; even some of their kings worshipped the idols of the nations round about; but after they came back from Babylon they clung more closely to their old faith, which was taught them by many famous prophets. At length, after long years, there came to them Christ, the Great Teacher, and out of their old religion grew the noble Christian faith, which has had so much to do with the civilization of the modern world.

The Noble Literature of the Bible.—The Hebrews had many able writers. We have the best of their writings in the Holy Bible, though they wrote much that has perished. Some of their religious writings which were not put in the Bible are known as the Apoc'rypha, and there is a large collection of other writings called the Tal'mud. But it is in the Old and the New Testament that we find their noblest literature. Those ancient writings contain the works of the prophets and priests and poets of the Hebrews. We find in them the highly interesting story of the patriarchs and the history of the Hebrew nation. Also they contain the splendid poems of David and other poets, and the grand writings of the prophets. And the New Testament, which is written in Greek, was the work of the Hebrews, and is the most precious of all their works. So, long after the glory of Assyria and Egypt passed away, that of the Hebrews remained.

THE ARTS AND THE HISTORY OF PHŒNICIA.

The Phœnician Country.—On the shore of the Mediterranean Sea, just north of Palestine, there was another

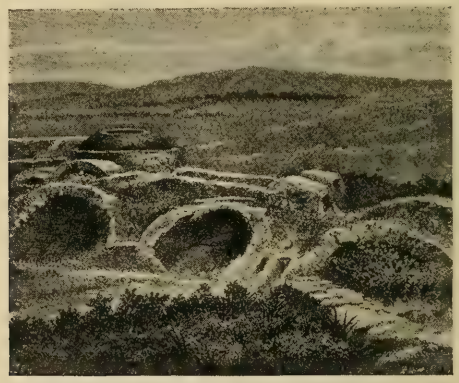
small country which became famous in the past. This country, whose name was Phœnicia (Fe-nish'e-a), was little more than a long strip of land between the mountains of Leb'anon and the sea. Its people could not live well on the produce of the land, so they lived on that of the sea, for they became the greatest sailors and trading people of the far past.

Phœnicia and its Cities.—It is thought that this people came from the shores of the Persian Gulf, near ancient Chaldea, four thousand or more years ago. We know that as early as 1500 B.C. they had their ships on the Mediterranean. Phœnicia was hardly a country, but only a number of cities, each of which was a little state of its own. Of these the most famous were Tyre and Sidon. Tyre was built on a small island off the shore, and was a famous mart of commerce long after Sidon had lost its importance. Where these cities stood there are now miserable little Turkish towns, but at one time they were the greatest commercial cities on the earth, with splendid harbors, full of ships, whose bold captains cared little for all the dangers of the seas, and sailed where no other mariners dared to go.

Tyre the Famous.—Sidon was the oldest great city of the land, and was a flourishing place till about 1050 B.C., when Tyre became the richest and most powerful city. Tyre was built at first on the sea-coast, but afterwards on an island a mile long and a mile from the shore. The city covered the whole island, and grew to be of wonderful beauty and grandeur and one of the richest cities in the world. It had two large and fine harbors for its ships, and a strong wall one hundred and fifty feet high went round the entire island to keep out its enemies.

The Ships of Tyre.—The ships of Tyre went to all quarters of the known earth. They sailed to every part of the Mediterranean Sea and far along the shores of the Atlantic Ocean, and brought back tin and copper from the British Islands and amber from the Baltic Sea and gold from Ophir in Africa, and the merchants of the city became as wealthy as princes. When Solomon wanted sailors for his ships, he got them from Tyre, and when Necho, King of Egypt, sent a fleet round Africa, it was Phœnician ships he used. No other sailors in that day would have had the daring and skill for such a great voyage as that.

The Colonies and Artisans of Phœnicia.—Phœnicia was also the first country to plant colonies. All along the



WELLS AT SITE OF CARTHAGE.

coast of the Mediterranean its daughter cities arose, the greatest of them being Carthage, a famous city whose story we have yet to tell. The people were also fine artisans and mechanics, being very skilful workers in gold, silver, ivory, and bronze. The embroidery and the glassware of Sidon

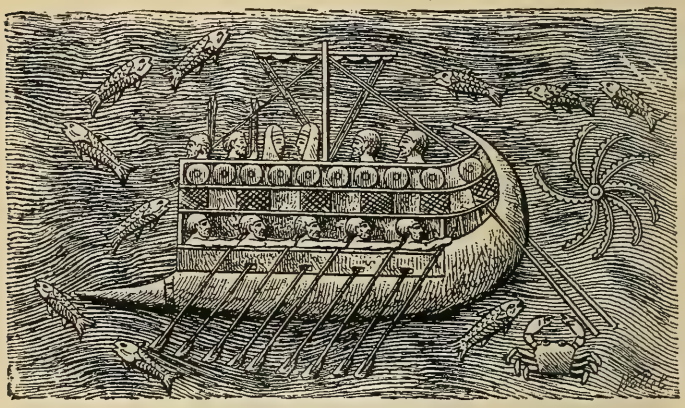
were the finest known in those days, and the Tyrian purple, a rich dye obtained from a species of shell-fish, was so costly and beautiful that in Rome only the emperors were allowed to use it. It was looked upon as a color too splendid for any but kings to wear.

The Origin of the Alphabet.—One of the most valuable gifts that Phœnicia gave to the world was the alphabet. Before that time men had only the picture writing of Egypt and Babylonia, in which the signs stood for words or syllables. These countries had signs for letters, too, but they made little use of them. What the Phœnicians did was to give the world an alphabet of letters. It was this alphabet which a Phœnician named Cad'mus is said to have brought to Greece. From Greece it has come down to all modern civilized lands and has become one of the great aids to civilization. Where the Phœnicians got this alphabet we do not know, for they traded both with Babylonia and Egypt and might have got it from one or the other. Most writers think that they got it from Egypt, where alphabetic symbols were in use to some extent.

The Kings of Phœnicia.—Now we must say something about the history of Phœnicia, aside from what it did with its ships at sea and what its merchants and artisans did at home. Each city had its king, but it is likely that the people had much freedom. If their kings used them badly, all they had to do was to sail away in their ships and build new cities of their own far away. The best known of their kings was Hiram of Tyre, who was a friend of King Solomon, and lent him workmen for his temple and sailors for his ships.

A Skilful Man of Tyre.—In the Bible we read that King Hiram sent to Solomon a "man of Tyre, skilful to

work in gold and in silver, in brass, in iron, in stone, and in timber, in purple, in blue, and in fine linen; also to grave any manner of graving and to find out every device that shall be put to him." To us this seems too much for one man to be skilled in, and we know that a number of men were sent with cedar and pine from Lebanon and with stone cut for building.



A Phœnician War Galley.

The Phœnicians not Warlike.—The Phœnicians were not fond of war. They had the empire of the sea, and did not care for that of the land. And their ships brought them in so much riches that they did not try to get more by robbing other cities. But the great kings near by would not let them dwell in peace. They knew how rich these cities were, and wished to rob them of the wealth they had won in commerce. I cannot say that it was all got honestly, for some of the sea captains of Phœnicia were no better than pirates, stealing not only the goods of distant countries, but carrying off their people to be sold as slaves.

The Conquest of Phœnicia.—About 850 B.C. the Phœnicians lost their liberty, their country being conquered by the Assyrians. In 608 B.C. it fell under the power of Egypt, and soon after was conquered by Nebuchadnezzar of Babylon. Eight years afterwards Tyre declared itself free and was besieged by Nebuchadnezzar. It took him thirteen years to subdue it. He could not easily win it by starving the people, as has so often been done with other cities, for its ships brought it in food and stores. When Babylon fell, Persia became the master of the Phœnician cities. In 351 B.C. Sidon rebelled, and when the Persians attacked the city its citizens set it on fire and burned it to the ground. Afterwards it was rebuilt, but its days of greatness were over, and where it once stood to-day we find the small town of Saida.

The Later History of Tyre.—In 332 B.C. Alexander the Great attacked and took both cities. Tyre fought hard for its liberty, and it took him seven months to capture it. He did so by building a great mole, or causeway of earth, from the shore to the island. He left the city a ruin, and Tyre never became great again. In later years the Greeks became active merchants, and took from it the empire of the sea. It was held by the Romans and later by the Arabs, from whom it was taken by the Crusaders. To-day it is a small Turkish town, and the island is now part of the mainland, for the causeway built by Alexander has spread into a broad isthmus joining the island to the shore.

SUMMARY OF HEBREW HISTORY.

Migration of Abraham	1900	B.C.
The exodus	1300	"
Establishment of the monarchy under Saul	1095	"
David	1055	"

Solomon	1015	B.C.
Division into the kingdoms of Judah and Israel	975	"
Captivity of the Israelites	721	"
Capture of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar	586	"
The Babylonish captivity	586-536	"
Return of the Jews	536	"
Subjugation of Judea by Alexander	332	"
Revolt under the Maccabees	165	"
Absorption by Rome	63	"

CHAPTER V

MEDIA AND PERSIA

The Aryan Race.—In the introduction you were told about the races of mankind from whom came the historical nations. Those you have so far read about were the Semites of Asia and the Hamites of Africa. Now we come to the story of the first great Aryan nation. Aryan is a Persian word which means "noble," but noble as the Aryans thought themselves, their civilization began at a late date.

The Land of Iran.—East of the lowlands of Babylonia and Assyria there is a great elevated region, filled with mountains and high valleys. This region was known in old times as Iran, and was peopled by barbarian tribes. They came from a land still farther east and settled in Iran, where they fed their cattle and sheep in the mountain valleys, and in time built towns and cities. The tribes of the south were called Persians, and those of the northeast, near the Caspian Sea, were called Medes, but they did not differ except in name.

The Rise of Media.—Though these people dwelt near the great civilized nations of the lowlands, they were slow in becoming civilized themselves. Nearly the first we know about them is in 830 B.C., when Me'dia was conquered by the Assyrians. About a century later the great King Sargon banished the ten tribes of Israel into a part of their territory. No doubt the Medes learned much from the Assyrians. They did not learn how to fight, for they knew that already, but they learned much about the art of gov-

ernment, and the wandering tribes became an organized nation, with a king and nobles. Persia also had a king, but the Medes were at first the leading people of Iran.

The Medes conquer Assyria.—The first great event in the history of this people came in 633 B.C., when they invaded Assyria and made an attack on Nineveh, but were driven back with heavy loss. Some twenty-seven years later they came again, under Cyax'ares, their first great king. We have already told how he made an alliance with the King of Babylon; took and burned Nineveh; and destroyed the great Assyrian Empire, which had ruled western Asia for centuries. Media took the north and Babylon the south of this empire, and Cyaxares set out on a career of conquest, leading his armies far into Asia Minor and to the country of the Lyd'ians, a strong nation of that region. It is said that an eclipse of the sun came on when the armies were about to fight and scared the kings so that they became friends.

The Birth of Cyrus.—The next king of Media was named Asty'ages. He was not warlike, and made treaties of peace with Babylon and Lydia. The Persian king acknowledged him as master and paid him tribute. Astyages gave his daughter in marriage to this king, and they had a son named Cy'rus. This son was to become one of the great kings and conquerors of ancient times.

A Princely Hostage.—About all we know of the early life of Cyrus is that his grandfather, King Astyages, kept him as a sort of hostage at the court of Media. He could not leave there without permission. This was done for fear Persia might rebel against the authority of the Median king. But some Greek writers tell us a good deal more about Cyrus. What they tell is all fable, but it used to be thought true, and you may like to hear it.

A Legend about Cyrus.—The story is that Astyages had a dream in which he was told that his daughter's son would conquer all Asia. Fearing for his own kingdom, he determined to get rid of this dangerous infant, and gave him to Har'pagus, one of his courtiers, to kill. Harpagus did not like to kill the poor little child, so he gave it to a herdsman, who promised to leave it on the mountains to die. But instead of this, the good man showed Harpagus the body of his own son, who had just died, and brought up little Cyrus in his cabin as his son. When he grew up Cyrus showed himself the master among his playfellows and beat them at his will. One of them, the son of a nobleman, complained of this to the king, and Cyrus was brought before him. Astyages knew him by his features. The savage old king took a terrible revenge on Harpagus for not doing as he was told. He invited him to a dinner, and after the courtier had eaten of the meat, Astyages told him it was the flesh of his own son, whom he had killed and cooked. Cyrus was sent to his father, but when he grew up, Harpagus, eager for revenge on the king, sent him word that Media was weak and that now was the time to invade and conquer it.

Cyrus subdues Media.—This is one of the stories which grow up about great conquerors. I have told you another one about Sargon, the old Babylonian king. Neither of them is likely to be true, but what we do know is that Cyrus grew up to be bold and warlike, and marched into Media with a large army. Media was conquered; Astyages lost his throne, and Cyrus became king of Persia and Media.

The Empire of Cyrus the Great.—Cyrus was one of the ablest warriors of ancient times. His people were bold and warlike, and he led them to victory until he built up

the greatest empire the world had known to that period. He conquered all the country to the east as far as the river Indus in northern India, and to the west as far as the borders of Greece, and was lord of all the land from the Caspian Sea to the Persian Gulf. He became known as Cyrus the Great. It must have been a dreadful shock to the nations of that time to find this mountain people, whose name some of them had never heard, rushing out like a great tornado to east and west, until nearly all southern Asia lay under their rule.

The Capture of Babylon.—We have already told you how Cyrus took the old city of Babylon and made himself master of the oldest of nations. The story goes that he dug canals and carried away all the water of the Euphrates River, which ran through the city, and so led his army in along the river bed. This is another Greek fable. The truth seems to be that the gates were left unguarded while a drunken festival was going on in the city, and that the Persians captured them and made their way in. The Bible tells us a thrilling story of this festival, describing a terrible handwriting which appeared in letters of fire on the palace wall, its tale of ruin and disaster being read by the prophet Daniel.

Crœsus, the Lydian King.—Now let us go farther west, to Asia Minor, where at that time there were three strong kingdoms, Phry'gia, Cili'cia and Lyd'ia. Of these, Lydia was the strongest and most civilized. It was a fertile land, and its river sands yielded an abundance of gold. Its king at that time was Crœsus (Kre'sus), who had captured several Greek cities and got so much gold in tribute and from his mines that he was the richest monarch of his times. "Rich as Crœsus" came to be a proverb in ancient Greece.

Solon and Crœsus.—But Crœsus went to war with Cyrus, the Persian, and his greatness soon disappeared. His armies were beaten, his capital Sar′dis was taken, and his great wealth fell into Persian hands. He was taken prisoner, and the story goes that Cyrus was going to burn him alive on a funeral pyre. Years before that a wise Greek named Solon had visited Crœsus, who boasted to him of his wealth and happiness. Solon answered, "Count no man happy until he is dead." Crœsus remembered this now that he was about to be burnt alive, and he called out, in his despair, "Solon! Solon!" Cyrus asked what he meant by this, and was told. The legend tells that the Persian was so much struck by the story that he set his captive free and ever after treated him with much kindness.

Cambyses in Egypt.—Cyrus won his great empire in thirty years of war, and then was killed while fighting some of the wild tribes of the north. He is said to have been a noble, generous, and kindly man, despite his great fondness for war. His son Camby′ses succeeded him. This king was cruel and despotic, and began his reign by murdering his brother. Then he set out to add some more of the world to the Persian Empire, and marched his army into Egypt. He conquered this country in a single battle. It is said that he defeated the Egyptians by placing cats, dogs, and other of their sacred animals before his army. But all we know is that he took possession of Memphis and Thebes and sent an army of fifty thousand men to capture the temple of Am′mon, on an oasis in the desert. Not a man of these was ever seen again, and it is thought they were buried in one of the fatal sand-storms of the desert, called simoons. Then he tried to march to Ethiopa through another desert, but had to turn back, as all his army was in danger of dying

from thirst and starvation. On his way home Cambyses died of a wound from his own sword. There was then a rebellion in Persia, and the rebels had put a new king on the throne, who they said was Smer'dis, the brother whom Cambyses had killed, and some think that he committed suicide when he heard of this.

The Great King Darius.—At any rate, the weak Cambyses made room for the greatest of the Persian kings. This was Dari'us, the son of a Persian noble, who helped put down the false Smerdis. The new monarch soon showed himself an able soldier and a great statesman. He put a quick end to all the rebellions in the empire, and built himself splendid palaces at Su'sa and Persep'olis. He had post-roads made through the empire for rapid travel, had gold and silver money coined, ordered important changes in the government, and then set out on a career of conquest.

The Wars of Darius.—His first great expedition was to India, where he conquered a district that was rich in gold. Then he marched several thousand miles to the west, crossed the Bos'porus into Europe on a bridge of boats, and fought with the wild Scy'thian tribes in what is now Southern Russia. Next the Greek cities of Asia Minor broke into rebellion and he marched there and conquered them. Sardis, the old capital of Crœsus, was taken and burned, and the people were treated with much severity. Darius afterwards invaded the rocky little country of Greece, which had helped the cities of Asia Minor, but there he met with a serious defeat. The story of this will be told when we come to the history of Greece. This defeat made Darius very angry and revengeful, but while he was gathering soldiers for a new expedition to Greece, he suddenly died. His death took place in the year 486 B.C.

Primitive Ideas of Government.—We have said that Darius was an able statesman and made important changes in the Persian system of government. It is well you should know what he did. You should bear in mind that government is a science, and has to be learned like every other science. In the first civilized countries each king ruled over a city and the small tract of country around it. Then some rulers conquered a number of cities and formed larger kingdoms. But they did not know how to organize them, and their kingdoms soon fell asunder, so that the city-states lasted long. But in time these small kingdoms grew into the great empires of Assyria, Babylon, and Egypt. These were still harder to keep together. The kings of conquered countries were left on the throne, and they often rebelled and had to be conquered again, so that the kings and armies were kept busy. To prevent this, in some cases all the people were taken from the country and new people put there who could be trusted. It was for this reason that the people of Israel and Judea were carried away and put where they could not rebel.

The Satraps of Persia.—What Darius did was to remove the kings of conquered countries, and put in their places governors of his own. The Assyrians had done this in some cases, but he divided the whole empire up into twenty or more provinces, called satrapies, over each of which he placed a governor called a sa'trap. He made each province pay him a certain income, and he had a close watch kept on the satraps, so that they could not rebel. In consequence the whole great empire was firmly joined together, which had not been the case in any of the older empires.

The Weak King Xerxes.—The son of Darius was named Xerxes (Zerx'es). He was a weak man, fonder of palace



GATEWAY TO PALACE OF XERXES. (Restored.)

pleasures than of camp life. But he tried to carry out his father's plans, and sent armies to put down rebellions in Egypt and Babylonia. Then he gathered a mighty host for the conquest of Greece. But he met with severe defeats and thought it best to let the Greeks alone. The story of what he did will come in best under the history of Greece, and all that need be told here is the story of how Xerxes, after the wild waters had broken down his bridge of boats, ordered the sea to be whipped and iron fetters to be cast into it, as if to punish it for its bad conduct. A man who would do such a foolish thing as that could not hope to win victories, and even in his own palace he was not more fortunate, for he was killed in his own chamber by some of the palace people.

The Fall of the Empire.—Artaxerx'es, the son of Xerxes, was forced to make peace with the Greeks, after the war had continued for about fifty years. This was in 449 B.C. The Persian Empire lasted a little more than a century after that, and then, in 334 B.C., it was conquered by Alexander the Great, King of Macedonia. How this was done will be told later.

CIVILIZATION IN PERSIA.

Persian Barbarism.—The Persians never became a people of high civilization. How long they dwelt close to the old civilizations of the Euphrates and Tigris we know not, but their rise to empire was sudden and much of their old tribal barbarism clung to them to the end. They accepted the luxury and enervating habits of their neighbors more readily than their arts, science, and literary activity.

Boys educated for Soldiers.—The Persians educated their sons to be soldiers, not to be scholars or workers. Their training began when they were five years old. They

had to rise early and practise in running, slinging stones, shooting with the bow, and throwing the javelin. They were obliged to make long journeys in all sorts of weather, sleeping on the ground; and were taught to endure hunger, sometimes being given only one meal in two days. That was pretty hard training. They became daring riders, too, and learned to jump off and on a horse and to shoot with the bow when at full gallop. When fifteen years old they became soldiers.

Other Education.—As for books, they knew nothing about them. Even the king could not read or sign his name, and could only make his mark with a seal. There were scribes who did all the writing, and the Persians had only one important book, their great religious work, the "Zend Avesta." They cared nothing for study and knew nothing of science, and they had no libraries like the Babylonians. But there was one fine thing in their education. Every boy was taught to speak the truth. When they grew up they did not forget this, but were always truthful and hated nothing more than falsehood and liars.

The Persian Writing and Inscriptions.—Very likely the writing of the Persians was borrowed from the Assyrians, for they used the cuneiform letters, though they did not write on clay tablets, but on skins prepared for writing, a sort of parchment. All the Persian writing found to-day is cut on stone, either on the rocks or on buildings and vases, and on cylinders used as seals. Like the Egyptians and other people of that time, they tried to do great things in order to make the world wonder, so when King Darius wished to give the future an account of his exploits, he had it carved on the face of a great cliff seventeen hundred feet high, at a place called Behis'tun. This was smoothed off and a long inscrip-

tion cut on it in three languages,—the Persian, the Median, and the Assyrian. Then it was covered with a glassy varnish which kept it in good condition. This work is of great value for another reason. I have told you how the Rosetta Stone, with its inscriptions in Greek and Egyptian, taught learned



A Persian Cuneiform Inscription.

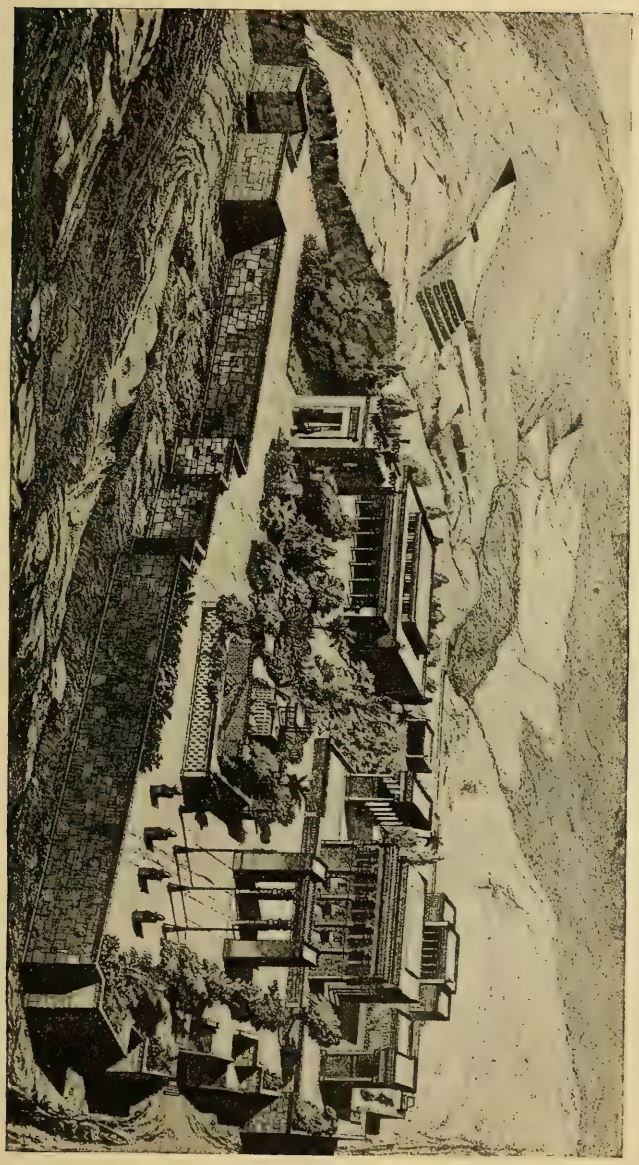
men how to read the hieroglyphics of Egypt. So the inscription made by King Darius was the key to the language of Assyria and Babylonia. The Persian language was known, and it led the way to reading the Assyrian, and that led to the Babylonian, and it was in this way men learned to read the books of Nineveh and Nippur.

Lack of Trade and Manufacture.—The Persians had of old been shepherd tribes. When they settled down they cultivated the soil, but they never cared for trade and commerce, and the rich boasted that they neither bought nor sold. They had no manufactures worth speaking of, no pottery or metal-work, or the like. They did not have to toil, they said, for they could get all they wanted by war. The nations they conquered supplied them with linens and muslins and carpets and metal-work, and dozens of other things made from Egypt to India.

The Worship of Fire.—The Persians were a very religious people. Their great god, named Or'mazd, was the god of sun, fire, and light. They had their fire-altars, on which a sacred flame was kept always burning, guarded by the priests. From this they were called fire-worshippers. Their religious customs were very simple, and they did not build great temples, like the other nations. Their altars were out of doors, often on lonely mountain-tops, so that the holy flame could be seen from far off.

The Great Palace Platform.—Their great buildings were palaces for the kings instead of temples for the gods. There were no more splendid palaces at Nineveh and Babylon than those built by the Persians at their royal cities of Susa and Persepolis, but it is likely they did not find architects and workmen at home, but got them from the conquered nations. They built their palaces on high platforms, as at Babylon, but instead of bricks they made these platforms of great blocks of stone, cut to shape and fastened together with iron clamps. There were splendid staircases leading up to the terraces, wide enough for ten horsemen to ride abreast. The great terrace or platform at Persepolis may still be seen by travellers, and is one of the wonders of the ancient world. It is about fifteen hundred feet long, one thousand feet wide, and forty feet high, with its grand stone stairways still in good condition.

The Persian Palaces.—On this broad space the kings built their palaces, and the ruins of these are still to be seen. There are walls, pillars, and huge doorways, and at the palace entrances are mighty winged bulls, like those found at Nineveh. Never were more splendid palaces than those of the proud Persian kings. They were elegant in form, costly in material, and rich in coloring, and were made beautiful by



PALACES AT PERSEPOLIS. (Restored.)

a multitude of graceful columns, over sixty feet high, and richly carved at top and bottom. Between these were magnificent hangings of rich colored draperies. The floors were of variegated marble, covered with rich carpets, the walls covered with plates of gold and silver, and over the royal bed was a golden vine bearing heavy bunches of grapes, of which every grape was a precious stone of great value. You may see from all this that they cared more for show than they did for art. It is doubtful if the king slept any sounder for his golden vine and precious grapes.

The Persian Luxury and Corruption.—All this splendor and wealth did not prove for the good of the Persians. Their old warlike spirit and energy left them, and they fell into luxury and extravagant pleasures. It was this that caused the ruin of the Medes, as it afterwards did of the Persians. It made them soft and effeminate, and they became weak and corrupt. In old times they had eaten but one meal a day and drank only water. They kept their one meal still, but now it lasted all day long, and wine took the place of water. Drunkenness became so common that it was looked on as a sort of duty. Even the king got drunk. Everything about their dress and their houses grew costly and extravagant, and the rich kept hosts of servants, each with only one thing to do. These were only a few of the follies they fell into, and we cannot wonder that the Persian empire was easily overthrown when it had the hardy Greeks to fight with. The people were ruined by their sudden rise from the simple customs of barbarism into the luxury of civilization.

Ancient Methods of War.—We have told you something about the Persians in peace ; now let us say something about them and the other ancient nations in war. War in

those days, you must remember, was very different from what it is in our times. There were no guns nor cannons, for gunpowder was not known until long afterwards. Fighting was done face to face and hand to hand, with swords and lances and battle-axes. For distant fighting they had only the bow and arrow, the sling, and the javelin. The Persian, like the Assyrian, carried a shield of wicker-work, almost large enough to cover him. Some of the soldiers wore coats of mail, like the Assyrians, or of quilted linen, like the Egyptians. The heavy cavalry wore strong coats of metal armor, but the light horsemen had less weight of metal on them and were very quick in their movements.

Ancient War Chariots.—The armies of Egypt and Assyria made much use of war chariots, but the Persians did not care for them except for their kings. When they did use chariots, there were sharp scythes standing out from the wheels, to cut down their foes as they drove through their ranks. But these did not do much damage, for their horses and drivers were often killed by the arrows of the enemy and the chariots stopped before they could reach the fighting line. The Egyptians and Assyrians made much use of battering-rams and ladders and siege towers when attacking walled cities, but the Persians did not seem to care for these. But they sometimes tried to frighten the enemy with elephants, and when Cyrus fought with Crœsus he won the battle by using a number of camels, which scared the horses of the Lydians.

The Persian Army.—Some of the armies of the old times were immense, and great hosts were slain in battle. The Persians sometimes had a million men in service. These were brought from all parts of the empire, and were armed and dressed in a great variety of ways. Each tribe

came wearing the dress and bearing the weapons of its own nation. There was little organization, and if the line of battle was once broken there was apt to be a wild flight, with the general often leading the way. An army like this could not stand well before the Greeks, with their compact ranks and fine organization, and a few thousand Greeks did not hesitate to meet a myriad of Persians, and usually put them to flight.

SUMMARY OF MEDIAN AND PERSIAN HISTORY.

Cyaxares, King of Media, allied with Babylonia, overthrows Assyria	625 B.C.
Cyrus, a Persian Prince, defeats Astyages, King of Media, and founds the Persian Empire	558 "
Cyrus subdues Western Asia; captures Babylon	538 "
Cambyses conquers Egypt	525 "
Darius I. wins the throne	522 "
Darius invades India, Scythia, and Greece	514–486 "
The Persians defeated at Marathon	490 "
Xerxes I. invades Greece and is defeated	480 "
Darius III. (last King of old Persian Empire)	336 "
Alexander the Great conquers Persia	329 "
New Persian Monarchy	226–641 A.D

CHAPTER VI

CHINA

The Great Current of History.—The study of history leads us to some points of much interest. Here we see it flowing down through time like a great river, which grows and spreads until it swells into a vast lake or is lost in the open sea; there it is like a still pool, which sends no waters to the central stream. We may look on early Egypt and Babylonia as the springs in which the mighty river of history rose, thence to flow downward through Assyria, Persia, and Palestine, and onward to Greece, Rome, and modern Europe, finally spreading out to cover the world of civilization. And we may also perceive separate lakes of history, which have sent no waters to the main stream.

Nations Outside the Current.—This is an illustration only, intended to call to your attention the story of two ancient lands, India and China, which have existed as civilized nations for thousands of years, yet have not helped to swell the broad flood of history. They have stood apart, like isolated lakes, and if they had never appeared at all history would have gone on very much the same without them. For this reason the story of their career is of no high importance, though we must say something about it before we launch our boat again on the main stream of history.

Character of the Chinese.—Let us begin with the story of China, which is one of the most ancient countries of the

L. of C.

earth, and which is still going on to-day with very little change from what it was two or three thousand years ago. While the world elsewhere has been sweeping on, it has nearly stood still. The Chinese are very proud and vain of their old things and want nothing better. They think that no other people come up to them in wisdom, and if left alone they might go on forever without change. But, as most of you may know, the outside world is stirring up old China nowadays and making it take up new things whether it wants them or not.

The Beginning of China.—How old China is nobody very well knows. Its history goes back about five thousand years and perhaps more. To-day it is the most crowded nation on the globe, but it began with a few wandering people, who had no houses or fire and little clothing, and who lived on roots and insects, or such animals as they could kill. At least, this is what the Chinese tell of themselves, but it may be far from true. They came from some place far away. Some think it was south of the Caspian Sea, or that they might have come as a colony from the old people of Babylonia, for there are some points of likeness between the ancient language of Accad and Shumer and that of China. If that is the case, they form a side branch from the main stream of history.

The Early Arts and Discoveries.—Wherever they came from, they got at length to the banks of the Hoang-ho, or Yellow River, of China, and there began to plant grain in the fertile soil and to fight the older people of the country, who very likely were savages. The new-comers brought some civilized arts with them. The Chinese possessed a kind of hieroglyphic writing, like that of Babylonia and Egypt, which they may have had at that time or may have

learned later. They studied the stars and learned something about them. They also knew how to get silk from the silk-worm and to make linen from flax, and they became traders as well as farmers. But all this came slowly and after many years.

Steps of Progress.—The ancient writers of China tell us a good deal about their early chiefs, but it may well be that most of this is fiction. One of the people learned how to make fire by rubbing two pieces of wood together and another how to keep account of things by tying knots in cords. One discovered iron and another invented the plough. It was a woman who learned how to reel silk from the cocoon of the silk-worm and weave it into cloth for clothing. And they kept on fighting the natives and spreading out wider through the land. But it was slow work. As late as 250 B.C., when they had been there some three thousand years, China was a very small country to what it is now. The old natives of the land fought fiercely and were hard to conquer.

A Famous Teacher.—In the year 551 B.C. was born the greatest and wisest Chinaman that ever lived. He was not a king or a nobleman, but began life poor, and made his way by becoming a famous teacher and writer and an adviser of kings. We call him Confu'cius, though his Chinese name was Kong-foo-tse. He was not a religious teacher. That is, he said nothing about the gods, but he taught the people to be good and to lead wise and moral lives. Of all the great men who have lived on the earth, whether conquerors or inventors or writers, none have gained greater renown than this quiet Chinese teacher, for to-day a nation of nearly five hundred million people are still studying the sayings of wise old Confucius and, as it were, going to school to him.

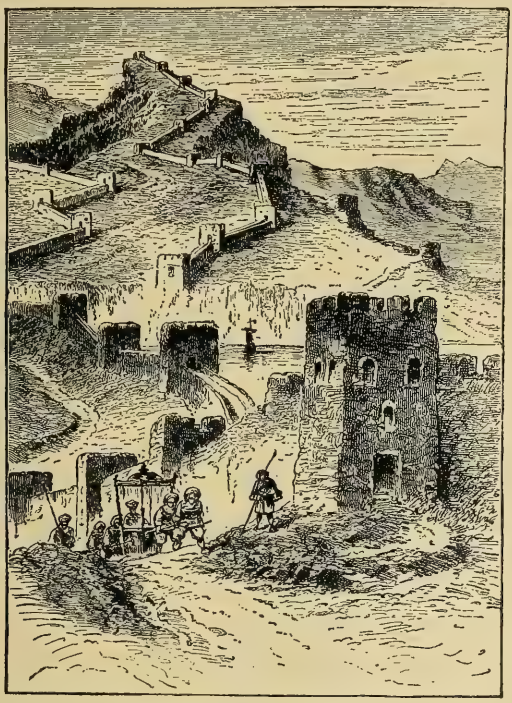
Confucius as a Writer.—Confucius was a celebrated writer also. There were plenty of earlier writers, but what they wrote is lost except so far as he saved it for us. He made up a "Book of History" and a "Book of Odes," and some other books, taking out what he thought the best of the old writings and letting the rest go. Some of his pupils wrote down his own sayings, and those of another wise man named Men'cius, who was also a famous author, and these books are all that remain of the old Chinese literature.

A Famous King.—There is really very little worth saying about the Chinese kings till we come down to the most famous of them all. The full name of this king was Tsin Chi Hoang-ti, but Hoangti will be name enough for us. We are told that he became king when he was only thirteen years old, and even at that age began to show what a great monarch he was destined to be.

The Condition of China.—But before telling the story of his reign, we must say something about things in China at that time. It was still a small country, and did not go south of the great river Yang-tse Kiang, which now runs through the centre of the land. Below this river were the savage natives, and in the north were wild and warlike Tartar tribes, whose custom it was to break into China, murder its people, and carry off its wealth. And the small kingdom that existed was divided up between powerful princes, who cared very little about the king and did very much as they pleased. It was a system much like the feudal system of later Europe. You may see from this that the boy king had come into small power, and was likely to find great trouble.

The Empire founded.—Hoangti was determined to be the real ruler of the land, and he became so. The unruly princes were fighting with one another, not caring much

for their boy king, but in time he brought them all under his control. This was done partly by his armies and partly by bribery and political trickery. But, at any rate, he overthrew the feudal system and became emperor of the whole land.



THE GREAT WALL OF CHINA.

The Chinese Wall.—While this was going on the Tartars of the north were killing and plundering the people, and riding back into the desert as soon as an army appeared. Hoangti grew very tired of this and decided to try a new way to keep them out of his realm. He would build an immense

wall along the whole northern border of China. This was the reason the famous Chinese wall came to be built. It was the most remarkable work ever done by man. It stretched along for fifteen hundred miles, over mountain and plain, and was built of brick, stone, and earth, being twenty-five feet wide at bottom and fifteen to thirty feet high. It contained more than seventy times as much material as the great pyramid of Egypt. But a great work like this needed a great king to guard it. When weak kings reigned the Tartars easily got over the wall. And as there were many weak kings, they had plenty of chances.

The Troublesome Books.—Hoangti did other striking things. He built himself splendid palaces. He had fine roads made in all directions. He divided the empire into provinces, and put governors over them in place of the princes. But his worst trouble was with the men of learning, who did not like to see the old things set aside by this new emperor. They grumbled and complained, and said that the books taught this and the books taught that, until the emperor began to think that he would never have a quiet time till those troublesome books were all out of the way. He did not care for books himself, thinking they were more plague than profit. So he issued an order that all the books in the empire, except those about medicine, agriculture, architecture, and astronomy, should be destroyed.

A Terrible Edict.—Such a thing no other king ever did in the history of the world. It seemed a frightful thing to do, and threw the learned men into a terrible panic. If any one were to try it nowadays he would rouse a revolution and very likely be driven from the throne. But Hoangti was a powerful king in a rude age, and his edict was carried out as far as possible. The whole empire was searched for

books, and all that could be found were burned. Every man who praised the past and condemned the present was ordered to be put to death, and any one found with a book in his possession, after thirty days, was branded and sent to work for four years on the great wall. As for the learned men who ventured to disobey the edict, hosts of them were arrested and four hundred and sixty of them were buried alive in a great pit dug for that purpose.

How the Books were saved.—One might think that measures like this would put an end to all books, but they did not. Many of the people loved their books more than anything besides, and they hid them in every way they could. They were hidden in the roofs and walls of the houses, were buried underground, and were concealed in the beds of rivers. After Hoangti died many books came out again. Some of the old books had gone, but men lived who remembered them. A blind old man was able to repeat a large part of the "Book of History" of Confucius, and other old works were saved in the same way.

The Later Kings.—China had no more kings like Hoangti. There were plenty who came after him, some of them wise, but more of them weak, and there were wars and rebellions and plenty of bloodshed and ruin, but hardly any progress. There was very little advance in learning and morals after Confucius and as little in the art of government after Hoangti.

The Mongol and Later Conquests.—China was twice conquered by the desert peoples, in spite of its great wall. In the thirteenth century the famous Mongol warrior Genghis Khan (jen'gis kan) invaded the land, and after him came Kooblai (Ku'bli) Khan, who founded a Mongol empire that lasted for nearly a hundred years. It was during his reign that a great

traveller from Venice, named Marco Polo, visited China and lived there many years. When he came back he wrote a book that told us much about that old land. Then, in the



Manchu Soldier.

seventeenth century, China was conquered again, this time by the people of Manchur'ia. The Manchurian emperors are still on the throne, though many great rebellions have been made by the Chinese against them.

LITERATURE AND ART IN CHINA.

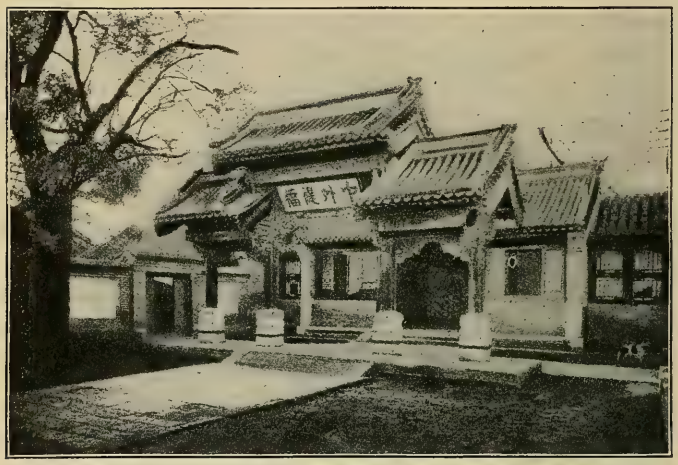
Chinese Writing.—Since the days of Hoangti the writers of China have been very busy, and multitudes of books have been written, including great encyclopædias of history

and the arts, poems, stories, etc. Yet writing is not an easy matter in China. They have no alphabet, as we have. With them every word has its special sign, and instead of learning the twenty-six letters of the alphabet, a Chinese writer needs to know over five thousand separate signs. They have in all from twenty-five thousand to fifty thousand signs. One would think there would not be many authors to write a language like that, but the Chinese are great students and have many writers. They have the art of printing also, which they invented long before it was known in Europe.

A Civil Service System.—Education is highly esteemed there, and is very general among the people. The land was full of schools at the time of Confucius and likely long before. All the office-holders in China have to pass a civil service examination, which is very strict for the higher offices, so one might imagine that the office-holders in China must be very learned. But the learning required is that of the old books of Confucius and Mencius, and there is nothing of modern science and art and history and such studies taught. The Chinese are now beginning to take these up, so that in time to come they may know something better worth knowing than their ancient classics.

New Ideas in China.—The Chinese are a very industrious people. They have their religions, too, three different ones, though they have very little true religion. Their ancestors are looked upon as divine spirits and are everywhere worshipped. For centuries past they have tried to keep foreign people out of their country. They think no one can teach them anything worth learning, and they dislike strangers. But of late years foreigners have forced their way in and they have taught the people and the emperor that there are others besides themselves who know things

worth knowing, and that the science and learning of Europe and America may be of use even to so self-satisfied a people as they have long been. The Chinese are now building railroads and telegraphs, and buying battle-ships and guns and



Building of the Tsung-li-Yamen, or Board of Foreign Affairs, Peking.

rifles, and some of them are studying the books of Europe; and it begins to look as if China before very long would swing into the current of world history, instead of keeping in its old lake bed.

CHAPTER VII

INDIA

The Migration to Persia and India.—Very far back in time there seems to have been a people of the Aryan race dwelling in the mountain land northwest of Persia. They were probably made up of tribes of herdsmen, who wandered about from pasture to pasture with their cattle and sheep. The time came that a part of these shepherd people journeyed to the west and settled the land now known as Persia. Another part moved south into India, and settled that land, after driving back the dark-skinned natives they found there. These were the people whom we now know as Hin'dus. They came to India some time before 1500 B.C., perhaps long before that date; no one knows just how long ago this was.

The Vedic Hymns.—Like the Persians, the Hindus have their sacred books. They called them the Ve'das, and they are made up of hymns to the gods. The priests joined with the chiefs in leading the people to battle, and composed and sang these sacred songs as they marched against their foes. How long it took to write all these hymns we do not know. It may have taken a thousand years or more for the invaders to drive back the natives and win the fertile valleys of the Indus and Ganges Rivers.

Character of the Hindus.—After the Hindus had conquered the country they seemed to lose the fighting spirit. The climate was hot and moist and the sun took from them their energy; while the Persians, in their high chill moun-

tain land, grew more warlike than ever. With the Hindus the priests seemed to be of more account than the kings. The people were divided up into small kingdoms, and there never was one king over the whole country. They became busy writers and produced many books, both in prose and poetry, but they did not seem to care for history, so we know hardly anything of what took place in their long centuries.

The Brief History of India.—India seems to be the only country whose people did not care for history or military glory. They never sent out an army to conquer other countries, though they were conquered themselves more than once. The kings of Persia were the first to march there with their armies, and afterwards came Alexander the Great. He did not make his way far into the country, but the scholars with him studied the land and its people, and wrote accounts of what they saw and learned. What they told is very much like what is found in India to-day, for the people there have changed as little as the Chinese. India has been conquered several times since, and is held by the English to-day, but its people still devote themselves to their literature and religion, and care no more for history than they did of old. In writing of India, therefore, we must devote ourselves to these things, since there is scarcely any history to tell.

THE CUSTOMS AND RELIGION OF THE HINDUS.

The System of Caste.—Some nations, you know, are divided into classes, and others are not. In many European countries there are the classes of ruler, nobles, merchants, and peasants In our own country there are no classes, and the poorest man may become President. But if we go

to India, we find the division into classes, or "castes," as they are called, greater than anywhere else on the earth. There it is a matter of religion, and no man can leave his caste. And a man of a high caste thinks himself disgraced if he is even touched by one of a lower caste. There must be a good deal of hard feeling in a country like that.

The Four Castes.—There are in India four chief castes, which have lasted for ages. The first of these is made up of the priests, the second of the soldiers and rulers, the third of the farmers and traders, and the fourth of the serfs, or sudras, who are the descendants of the old natives of the country. Then there are the pariahs or outcasts, who are the lowest of the natives and are despised by everybody. And no man can get out of the caste into which he is born, if he be wise as Solomon or rich as Crœsus. There used to be a system like this in old Egypt, but there is nothing like it anywhere else on the earth to-day.



BRAHMAN FROM CASHMIRE.

The Hindu Religion.—The Hindus are a very religious people. Their religion is known as Brah'manism. At first they worshipped the Heaven Father. Then they grew to believe in what is called Pan'theism, and taught that God exists in all things and is the soul of the universe. But the peculiar feature in their religion is what is known as transmigration of souls. They believe that when a man dies his soul goes into the body of

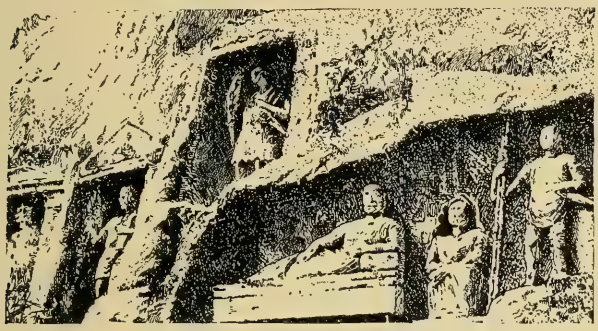
some new-born child, or if he has been wicked into that of some animal. And his soul must go through many such bodies before it is pure enough to ascend to heaven and join the company of the good.

The Growth of the Buddhists.—About the year 500 B.C. there lived in India a great teacher known as Buddha (bood'dah), who preached a new religious doctrine, in which he tried to do away with the system of caste, and said that the poor outcast was as precious in the sight of God as the proud Brahman or priest. This made the Brahmans, who thought that heaven belonged to those of high caste, very bitter, and after many centuries they succeeded in driving all the Buddhists out of India. But the Buddhists were active missionaries, and their religion had spread through China and Japan and Mongolia and Ceylon, and in our day Buddhism is the religion of nearly one-third of the whole human race, and there are more Buddhists on earth than there are Christians.

The Literature of India.—The Hindus have been very busy writers and have a great many books, most of them religious. You have been told about the Vedas, or hymns to the gods, of whom the people believe in a good many. Then there are many other writings both in prose and poetry. Among these there are some great religious poems, and books on grammar, law, and arithmetic, with plays and other poems. There is almost everything except history. The Hindus are the only large nation which never had a king over the whole people, and which never went to war with its neighbors. And history, you know, is generally the story of the king and his doings.

The Wealth of India.—India has long been a very rich country. It was celebrated in the past for its silks, spices,

perfumes, diamonds, and other precious stones, and the nations of Europe were eager to trade for these rich goods. The old Phœnicians sent their ships and their caravans to India several thousand years ago, and this has ever since been kept up. It was the wish to find a new way to India and its riches that set Columbus on the great voyage in which he discovered America. And he always thought he had got there.



Rock Carvings in India.

A Land of Grand Architecture.—There is one thing more we must say of India. Its people have been great builders. Nowhere else on the earth do we find more splendid temples and grottos than those they have cut out of the solid rock. And they have built many temples of immense size and full of wonderful carvings. Thousands of men have worked for hundreds of years on these mighty buildings and rock cuttings, which are among the wonders of the world.

SUMMARY OF HISTORY OF CHINA AND INDIA.

Confucius and his teachings	551	B.C.
Hoang-ti the great emperor	221	"
Kooblai Khan	1260	A.D.
Manchurian conquest	1644	"
Aryan conquest of India before	1500	B.C.
Buddhism founded about	500	"
Mohammedan invasion	1001	A.D.
British control began	1757	"

SECTION II.—GREECE AND MACEDONIA

CHAPTER I

GREECE BEFORE THE PERSIAN WARS

So far you have been reading the ancient history of Asia and Egypt. Now you must begin to read the history of Europe, which has long been the great historic continent. And the earliest country to come before us in Europe is the famous land of Greece, in which civilization first set foot on that continent.

What Greece owed to the Earlier Empires.—Many old writers set out in the history of the world with Greece, as if the older nations were not worth speaking about. But it is now being learned that the seeds of Grecian history were planted in Asia and Egypt, and that the Greeks went to school, as we may say, to the Egyptians, Assyrians, and Phœnicians. As you have been told, the course of history has been like that of a mighty river. It had its sources in Babylonia and Egypt, and Greece lay a long distance down the stream. It is quite certain that the Greeks learned much from the older nations, but no one can say as yet just how much; so, without further introduction, we shall take up the history of the Grecian people.

The Small Size of Greece.—If you look on the map of Europe for the country of Greece you will find it to be a little rocky peninsula in the southeast, running down into the Mediterranean Sea, and separated from Asia by a narrow

stream of salt water. Modern Greece is only about half as large as the State of New York, and ancient Greece was not much larger than that State. It does not take up much room on the map, as you may see, but for all that the people who lived there took up a very large room in history. What would you think if the State of New York contained twenty or more different nations, some of them wise and



Map of Greece.

learned and some dull and ignorant, but all of them full of warlike spirit, and fighting together like cats and dogs? It was that way with Greece during most of its history, for its vales and hills held nearly twenty different nations, some of them with only a handful of people and a few rocks and plains to live on. Even At'tica, the most famous of them

all, was only a little larger than our State of Delaware, and about twice as large as the tiny State of Rhode Island. You may see that only a great people could have given so much fame to so small a land.

The Beauty of Greece.—There is much that is beautiful and charming about the land of Greece. They who go there say that it is a delightful country. In the north is a range of mountains which cut off the cold winds of the icy regions, and make the climate mild and pleasant. In all parts of the country are beautiful hills, covered with olive- and fig-trees and vines. At their feet are smiling valleys, while fine scenery is widely to be seen. On every side of the land flows the bright warm waters of the Mediterranean Sea, here and there breaking deeply into the land. In the south it cuts the country nearly in half, making a smaller peninsula called the Peloponne'sus (now the More'a). And all around this land of hills and vales are dozens of beautiful islands, some large, many small, and numbers of them with interesting histories. It is a country in which people might well have lived in peace and happiness; but there are not many parts of Greece that have not been reddened with the blood of bold and brave fighting men.

The Pelasgians and their Work.—The first people we know anything about in Greece were called Pelas'gians. Nearly all we know of them is that they cultivated the ground and lived in cities, and built tombs and strong walls, in which they used immense and rudely cut blocks of stone. They could not be called civilized, but they were far past the savage state. Some of their old work remains, and looks as if it had been built by the hands of giants.

The Grecian People.—Into this country of the Pelasgians there came, very long ago, a new people who called them-

selves Helle'nes. Although their country is now called Greece, they always called it Hel'las, and made very little use of the word Greece. There were four tribes or divisions of the Hellenes. Two of these, known as the Achæans (A-ke'ans) and the Dor'ians, were the first to come, and they were later pushed on by new-comers into the Peloponnesus, where they founded several nations. Afterwards came the Æolians (E-o'lians), most of whom settled on the shores of Asia Minor; and the Io'nians, whose home was in Attica, and who built the celebrated city of Athens.

The Dorians and Ionians.—In later times the Dorians and the Ionians were the leading people of Greece. They were not at all like one another. The Dorians were a plain, practical people, devoted to war and gymnastic training, but caring little about literature or mental education. Their great city was Spar'ta. The Ionians were a people of active minds, who did all they could to develop their intellects as well as their bodies, and became the most famous artists, writers, and philosophers of the world. The history of Greece is very largely the history of the Ionians and of Ath'ens, which was long the world's greatest centre of art and literature.

The Government of Hellas.—There is one thing more to be said about the Greeks, before we go into the story of their career. They were the first democratic people of whom we know anything. Everywhere else in these ancient times we find the nations under kings, most of whom were despots, who could do what they pleased with the lives and property of their people. The Greek tribes at first were led by chiefs, who afterwards became kings, but later on republican governments were formed, in which the laws were made by a legislature elected by the people, and there was

no monarch. In many ways the government of the United States is like that of ancient Hellas.

The Greek Calendar.—Where the Hellenes came from we do not know, except that it seems to have been somewhere in the east or the north. And we do not know when they came. The first we know of their actual history begins with the year 776 B.C., which was the year 1 of the Grecian calendar. Many nations of the past, you should know, counted the years from a certain date, just as we do from the time of Christ, and it was this way with the Greeks.

The Age of Tradition.—No doubt the Greeks had been in their new home many centuries before their year 1, but they could hardly be called civilized much earlier, though their greatest poet, the famous Homer, lived before that date. When we read about early Greece we seem to get hold of a good deal of history, but it is so mixed up with the doings of wonderful heroes, and with doubtful legends, in many of which the gods take part in the affairs of men, that no one can tell how much is true and how much false. There is the story of the labors of Hercules, the Greek Samson; and that of the wonderful search for the Golden Fleece; and that of the famous siege of Troy, of which Homer sang; and many others, not one of which belongs to history, though there may be some facts in them. This period is known as the Age of the Heroes. It might also be called the Age of Fable.

Cadmus and the Alphabet.—There is one of these early stories which certainly contains the germ of truth, and which is of much importance. We are told that Cad'mus, a Phœnician, son of the King of Sidon, brought the alphabet to Greece far back in the history of that country. This first alphabet contained sixteen letters and was the foundation

of all the alphabets of Europe. How long ago this was, and when the Greeks learned to write, we do not know. Some think that there was no writing in Homer's time, and that his long poems were kept in men's memories until the age of writing came. But there is no use in taking things like this by guess-work, when no one knows the truth.

The System of Lycurgus.—If we start at the beginning of actual Greek history, we find the Spar'tans—the people in and around the city of Sparta—one of the most prominent in Greece. Their country was called Laco'nia, and they had a very peculiar system of government, which is said to have been given them by a legislator named Lycur'gus, somewhere about 850 B.C. This was a system calculated to make hardy men and women and bold soldiers of the Spartans, but not to make them learned and wise. In some ways it was like that of the old Persians, but was far more severe. One terrible thing in it was that all the little children who were weak or sickly had to be taken to some lonely place and left there to die. Only the strong and healthy ones were allowed to live and grow up. And all of these, girls and boys alike, were made to go through severe athletic exercises to keep them strong and vigorous.



A Greek Warrior.
(From a painted vase.)

What the Boys were taught.—The boys were taken away from their homes and parents when only seven years old, and were brought up by the state and drilled to make them soldiers. They were taught to

bear hunger and thirst and heat and cold, and to endure suffering without complaint. They were sometimes severely whipped to see if they could bear pain in silence. There is a famous story of a Spartan boy who stole a fox and hid it under his coat. The fox tore out his vitals, but not a word or sound of pain came from the suffering boy. In fact, they were taught to steal as a part of their education, and were punished if found out in it. This was done to teach them the value of secrecy and strategy in war, and about all the Spartans were ever good for was to fight.

Life in Sparta.—There was little home life for the Spartans. They lived in public and took their meals at public tables, to which each had to give some of the produce of his land, and there was not much on these tables. Very likely they often got up hungry. The Spartan system made strong and valiant soldiers, but it stopped progress in everything else. The land was farmed by He'lots or slaves, and commerce was forbidden by law. They went so far as to make their money of iron, so that no one would care to have much of it. They had no art or literature, and despised public speaking, thinking that a few words were better than long talks. They believed in speaking briefly and to the point, and from that came the word "laconic," after Laconia, the Spartan land. If all the Greeks had been like the Spartans there would have been little important Grecian history.

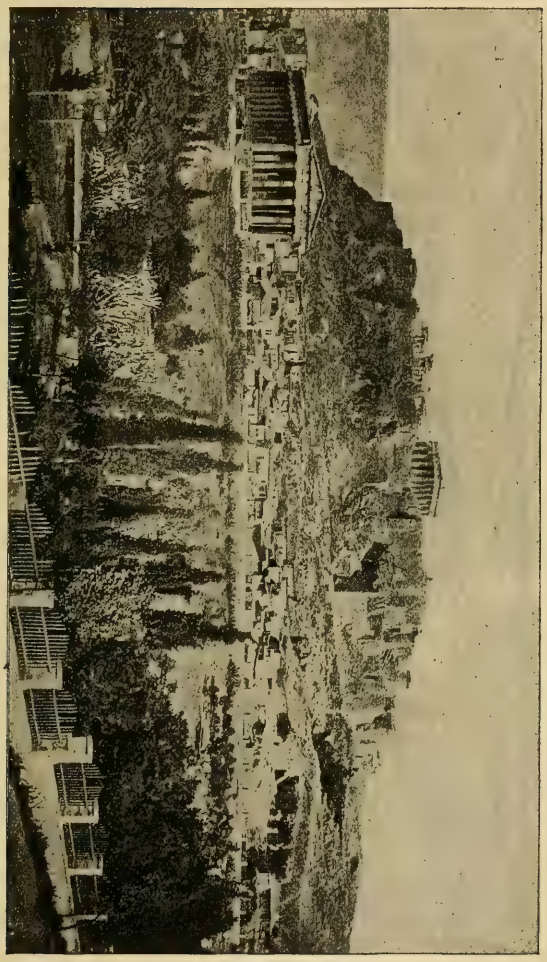
The Twin Kings and the Ephors.—The Spartans were peculiar in another way. They had two kings, one to lead the armies, and one to stay at home and attend to religious duties. But these were kings only in name, for the senate was the law-making body, and all the Spartans met yearly in a general assembly and elected five officers, called Ephors,

who had the ruling power. So the country was something of a republic, though it had the form of a monarchy.

The Spartan Wars.—A people brought up like the Spartans could not well keep out of war. They conquered the Messen'ians, the Ar'gives, and other nations, and became the leading power in the Peloponnesus. Then, in the sixth century B.C., they began to interfere in the affairs of the rest of Greece. There were no such warriors anywhere in the land, and they might in time have become the lords of all Greece if the Persian wars had not come on about that time and changed the whole state of affairs. Those wars were the first great event in real Grecian history, but before we come to speak of them we have the early story of Athens to tell.

The Acropolis at Athens.—Four or five miles from the sea, on the plains of the small country of Attica, there rises a steep hill, about a hundred and fifty feet high. It has a flat top, about a thousand feet long and half as wide. This is called the Acrop'olis, which means hill-city, and on it the first settlers of Athens built their humble homes, Hill-cities, you should know, were common enough in primitive times, for they served as a sort of natural forts. But in later days, when Athens grew too large for the hill-top, it came down and spread far over the plain, and the Par'thenon and other splendid temples to the gods were built on the Acropolis.

Early Government of Athens.—In the early days the people of Attica were governed by kings. These, no doubt, were the old tribal chiefs, who had not much power, but gained more after the people became settled. The last king was named Co'drus, and after him for a long time the nobles held the power, and picked out as ruler one of the old royal family. He held the office for life, but could not leave it to



THE ACROPOLIS OF ATHENS.

his son. In 752 B.C., after there had been twelve of these life-kings or archons (ar'kons), one was chosen for ten years only, and later on the archon was elected for only one year; still later nine archons were elected each year and also a senate, all whose members were nobles. As the nobles did everything, this was not a republic, but what is called an ol'igarchy, in which the government is in the hands of a few aristocrats.

The Laws of Draco.—No doubt, if this had been in our own time, the common people would soon have begun to ask what right these nobles had to all the power, especially if they acted like tyrants, as these often did. The old Athenians were much like us and felt the same way, and at length there was a rebellion against the archons. This rebellion was put down, and all who took part in it were killed, but the nobles saw that the people would not put up with that kind of rule much longer, so they chose one of themselves, a statesman named Dra'co, to draw up a new constitution and form new laws. Draco gave some of the people a voice in the election of the rulers, which was a useful reform. But his laws were terribly severe, for they said that any one who committed a crime, if it was only a petty theft, should be put to death. So it was said that Draco's laws were written in blood, not in ink.

The Constitution of Solon.—The people did not like these laws nor the laws about debt. Every one who owed a debt which he could not pay might be sold for a slave. When bad times came many of the poor Athenians suffered from this cruel law; so, in 594 B.C., a wise and good man named So'lon was chosen to make a new constitution. He began by cancelling all debts and doing away with the right to sell any man for debt, which was a great boon to the people.

And he took away most of the power of the aristocracy and gave all citizens of Athens a share of power, though the nobles were still left some special privileges.

A Political Dictator.—After that Athens had its political parties, and there were struggles and fights, which ended in a shrewd political leader named Pisis'trates making himself dictator. He was like what we now call a political "boss," but he ruled like a king. The people bore with him, for his rule was mild, and his sons followed him until 510 B.C. Then all his family were banished and a new constitution was adopted, in which every citizen of Athens was given the right to vote and all were made equal in power. Attica had now become a pure democracy, with liberty and equality for all.

Ostracism.—Any one of whom the people of Athens were afraid or whom they did not like could be banished, under the new laws, for ten years. This was done to prevent any more tyrants from seizing the government; but in later times it led to some of the best men being banished. It was called os'tracism, from *ostrakon*, a piece of shell or pottery, on which was written the name of the person whose banishment was to be settled by vote.

The Supreme Court of Athens.—Athens had another institution worth speaking of, a sort of supreme court, which had great power over the decision of other courts and also control over religious crimes. This was called the Areop'agus, and was a very ancient court, coming down from far past times. It met on a hill near the Acropolis, and its judges were those who had served well as archons.

Such was the state of public affairs in Athens when the Persian invasions began, and brought on a new and nobler era for Greece.

CHAPTER II

THE PERSIAN INVASIONS OF GREECE

The Alertness of the Greeks.—Any one may see, from what has been said of the Greeks, that they were no ordinary people. They were full of energy and activity, alert and wide awake in every way. No common people could have formed the Spartan laws and lived under them, and no common people could have produced such poems as those of Homer, which in their way have never been surpassed. They were alert abroad as well as at home, and got all the good they could out of other nations. They obtained the alphabet from Phœnicia, and soon put it to wonderful use. They gained much knowledge of art and science, and also some of their religious ideas, from Egypt. From Assyria they learned something of the art of building and other useful things. Like bees, they were gathering honey from every flower.

Navigation and Colonies.—The Greeks were as active and enterprising in business as in other things. Their country was bathed on every side by the sea, and they soon became rivals of the Phœnicians as merchants and sailors, trading to all the ports of the Mediterranean and the Black Seas. Like the Phœnicians, they planted colonies wherever they went. The south of Italy was so full of their colonies that it was called *Magna Græcia*—"Great Greece." In Sicily (Sis'i-le) was the Greek city of Syr'acuse, and in France that of Marsa'lia (now Marseilles). There were Greek

colonies also on the coasts of Africa and of Egypt and of the Black Sea. All this helped to bring Greece in close touch with the world and had much to do with its rapid progress in all the civilized arts.

The Colonies of Asia Minor.—A favorite seat for Greek colonies was on the neighboring coast of Asia Minor. Here were active and flourishing colonies of the Æolians, Ionians, and Dorians, some of which were of much note in Grecian history. The Æolians formed a confederacy of twelve cities, and the Ionians had a powerful confederation on the coast of Lydia and some neighboring islands. The Greek colonies of Asia had much to do with the history of Greece, for they led to the famous Persian war.

The Ionian Cities rebel and Sardis is burned.—In the story of Persia you have been told how Cyrus the Great marched through Asia Minor with his armies and conquered the strong country of Lydia. He also captured and added to his empire most of the Greek cities and colonies on the coast and the adjacent islands. Some fifty years afterwards, in 500 B.C., when Darius was King of Persia, the Ionian cities, whose people did not like Persian rule, broke into rebellion; and the city of Athens sent twenty ships, with a small body of soldiers, to help them. In the fighting that followed these troops captured Sardis, the capital of Lydia, which was set on fire by accident and burned to the ground.

"Remember the Athenians."—When the proud Persian king heard of this he was very angry. What right, he thought, had those insolent Greeks to meddle in his affairs and burn his cities? He called for his bow and shot an arrow into the air, and prayed to his god for help against the Athenians. And he told one of his servants to say to

him three times every day, as he sat down to his meals, "Master, remember the Athenians!"

The Defeat of Mardonius.—It took Darius several years to put down and punish the rebels of Lydia before he could deal with Greece. Then he sent his son-in-law Mardo'nius, with a large fleet and army, to march to Greece and punish its insolent people. But Mardonius did not find this easy to do. The barbarians of Thrace, north of Greece, whose country he first entered, gave his army so much trouble that it never reached the soil of Greece. As for the fleet, the wild winds came to the help of Greece. While it was sailing past Mount Athos, a headland on the eastern coast, there arose a violent storm, and three hundred ships went to the bottom or were wrecked on the shore. This was a bad beginning for the Persians, and Mardonius went back to Asia in disgrace.

The Heralds of Darius.—When the news of this was brought to Darius he was more bent than ever on punishing the Greeks, and began to get ready for a great revenge. In two years he had an army of one hundred and twenty thousand men and a fleet of six hundred ships. He now sent heralds to the Grecian states, bidding them send him earth and water in token that he was their lord and master. The weak states did as they were ordered, but Athens and Sparta defied Persia and its power. What they did was to throw the heralds into pits and wells, telling them that they might help themselves to earth and water for their master.

The Plain of Marathon.—Darius did not send his army this time by the way of Thrace, but had it put on board the great fleet and sent directly across to the Grecian shore. It was now the year 490 B.C., a year to be remembered as one of the most famous dates in Grecian history. Straight to Attica

went the Persian ships and landed their soldiers at a place named Mar'athon, hardly a day's journey from Athens. Here is a bay, with a plain adjoining, and back of this are hills curving like the new moon. On the level ground the Persian army was drawn up, strong and confident, and full of hope of soon being in Athens.

The Runner to Sparta.—But they did not know the spirit of the Athenians. To fill their ranks the citizens offered freedom to any of their slaves who would take up arms and fight. A swift runner was sent to Sparta to ask for aid. In thirty-six hours he was in that city, one hundred and fifty miles away. But it was several days short of the full moon, and there was an old superstition among the Spartans that it was unlucky to begin a march before the moon was at its full. They came fast enough when they did start, but when they entered Athens in full array they were told they had come too late, for all was over. The only help the Athenians got was that of six hundred men from the little city of Platæ'a, and they only had ten thousand men in all to fight with the vast Persian host.

The Victory at Marathon.—But those ten thousand Greeks were heroes. Their leader was named Milti'ades, a brave and able soldier and patriot. He drew up his small force on the slope of the hills leading down to Marathon. The whole level ground before them was filled with Persians in martial array. But at the word of command the Greeks charged like a tempest down the hill-side and were soon cutting and thrusting furiously among the crowded host. Back went the Persians in terror and confusion, first the centre, then the wings, wildly fleeing towards their ships, into which they hastily crowded. Thousands of them lay slaughtered on the plain. It was one of the most famous

victories in history. A messenger was at once sent to Athens with the glorious news, but he was so exhausted with his swift run that he could barely gasp out "Victory is ours!" when he fell dead.



Miltiades given the Victor's Laurel-Branch.

Athens saved from Capture.—There is one thing more to be told of that great day. Miltiades put watchers on the hill-tops, and they brought him word that the Persian fleet was sailing for Athens, no doubt expecting to find it empty of soldiers. But when the Persian generals landed the next morning to attack the city, they saw drawn up before them the invincible ten thousand, who, tired as they were, had marched in all haste to their city's defence. The Persians had seen and felt all they wanted of these men, so they hastily set sail for the shores of Asia. They had been

taught a useful lesson,—namely, that free Europe was not to be subjected easily to Persian tyranny.

The Gathering of a New Host.—Likely enough, if any of us had been in the great palace of Persepolis when this news reached there, we would have seen the mighty King Darius in a frightful temper. He, the lord of all southern Asia, had been defied and twice defeated by the few people of the little rocky peninsula of Greece! He vowed that the next time there should be a different tale to tell, and began to collect an immense force from all parts of his vast empire. Luckily for Greece, he died before his new army was ready (485 B.C.), and left his feeble son Xerxes to take up the task. So it happened that ten years passed before the Persians came back again, and then with a feeble leader.

The Crime of Miltiades.—In those ten years some things worth telling took place. Miltiades, the victor at Marathon, fell into disgrace by using the fleet of Athens to avenge himself on some of his private enemies. He came back wounded and was put on trial for his traitorous conduct. By law he should have been condemned to death, but he had done so much for Athens that he was merely fined. The fine was more than he could pay, but he escaped it by dying of his wound—perhaps aggravated by shame and remorse.

Two Famous Contestants.—There were two other famous Athenians, Themis'tocles and Aristi'des, who became prominent in those years. Themistocles was a far-seeing statesman. He told the people that the Persians would surely come again and that they should be prepared for a bitter war; especially that a strong navy should be built, for they would bring many ships. Aristides was a just and noble man, but not so wise a statesman as The-

mistocles, and he bitterly opposed the building of a navy, saying that Athens should trust to its soldiers, as of old. He was very stubborn, and each gathered a party and fought so hard that the whole town was upset by their rivalry. The people did not see any way to settle this quarrel except by banishing one of the two leaders by the law of ostracism. Most of the people agreed with Themistocles, so Aristides was sent into exile, six thousand votes being cast against him. Themistocles now carried out his policy, and soon Athens had the largest navy any Greek city had ever known, with a fine harbor near by.

Aristides and the Voter.—There is a good story told of the banishment of Aristides. While the vote was being taken in the assembly of the people, an ignorant peasant came up to the statesman himself and asked him to write the name of Aristides on his shell. He calmly did so, and then asked him what harm Aristides had ever done to him. "None at all," said the voter; "I do not even know him; but I am tired of hearing him called 'the Just.'"

Xerxes and his Army.—Never had there been such preparations for war as those which Xerxes made. For years they went on through the whole great Persian Empire. Every province, from India to Lydia, had to furnish stores and men, arms and food. All along the route of the army great storehouses of provisions were placed. And everywhere on the Asiatic sea-coast vessels were gathered. A ship-canal was cut behind Mount Athos, in front of which Mardonius had lost his fleet. Across the Hel'lespont, the stream between Europe and Asia, a double bridge of boats was built for the march of the mighty Persian army of more than a million men. One would have thought that it was all Europe, instead of little Greece, that they were coming

to conquer. Luckily for Greece, its great foe Darius was dead, and Xerxes was better fitted for palace pleasures than for war.

The Bridge of Boats.—The first trouble was with the Hellespont, where a fierce storm carried away the bridge of boats. Xerxes showed the kind of man he was by ordering the builders to be put to death and the waters to be bound with fetters and scourged with whips—as if the waters and winds would mind that. Then two very strong bridges were built, and the army marched across, the king riding in state in his splendid Chariot of the Sun, drawn by eight milk-white steeds. For seven days and nights the march kept up, and then the vast host pushed southward towards Greece.

What the Greeks were doing.—You may wish to know what the Greeks were doing to save their country. One would say they were doing their best to win defeat. While Xerxes and his great army were coming on, they were celebrating the Olympian Games, a religious festival which they were not willing to postpone even to serve their country. This is something like the story of the Spartans and the full moon before the fight at Marathon. All that was done to stop the Persians was to send a small force of three hundred Spartans, under their king, Leon'idas, and about six thousand men from the other states, to face the foe. It was like sending a minnow to stop a whale.

The Pass of Thermopylæ.—But you must bear in mind that there was a rugged mountain-chain which ran across the north of Greece. Between this and the sea was a narrow pass, named Thermop'ylæ. Here stood Leonidas and his men. It was a place where a handful of brave soldiers could stop a host, and when Xerxes marched up

and ordered them to give up their arms, Leonidas sent back word, "Come and take them."

A Mountain Pass.—For two days the Persians tried to take them, losing great numbers of men, and in the end growing so afraid of the Spartans that they had to be driven to the attack with whips. Then some Greek traitor showed Xerxes a rough path over the mountains, and soon there were Persian soldiers at both ends of the pass.

The Heroes of Thermopylæ.—When Leonidas heard of this, what did he do? There was time to escape, but it was not the Spartan way to go back before a foe. By the law of Sparta it was his duty to conquer or die. He told all who cared for their lives to seek safety in flight. He and the Spartans would remain. They did not stay alone. Seven hundred brave Thespians stayed with them. The next day this gallant thousand fought the Persian million with desperate courage. Before night fell the last of them lay dead, but they had won immortal glory. This deed of deathless fame took place in August 480 B.C.

Athens is burned.—Athens now lay open to the Persians, with nothing to defend it. But the advice of Themistocles had been taken and the city had built a great fleet. The oracle said that the Athenians must seek safety in their "wooden walls." This, it was thought, meant the fleet, so all the people of Attica crowded on board the ships and left the city and the fields empty for the Persians, who soon entered Athens and burned it to the ground.

Themistocles and the Fleet.—But there was still a hope for Greece and its valiant people. The fleet remained, with Themistocles in command. Just off the coast of Attica lies the island of Sal'amis, with a narrow passage between it and the shore. Here lay the Grecian fleet of three hundred

and sixty-six ships. The Persians had lost heavily by storm, but they still had about one thousand ships. Themistocles knew the danger of delay, and he played a cunning trick on Xerxes, sending him word that he was ready



DEPARTURE OF THE FLEET FOR SALAMIS.

to join him and advising him to attack at once before the Greek fleet could get ready to fight.

The Victory at Salamis.—Xerxes trusted the cunning Greek and ordered his captains to fight. All his troops were drawn up as spectators along the shore, and the king himself sat on a lofty throne, expecting to see a final defeat of the Greeks. What he saw was a terrible battle, in which the Greeks fought like heroes and Persian blood reddened the sea. Two hundred of the Persian ships were destroyed, and the others hastily fled. That was too much for the

weak mind of Xerxes. He feared that his bridge of boats would be destroyed by the victorious ships, and he set off in a hasty retreat for Asia, eager to get back within the safety of his palace walls and out of reach of those terrible Greeks.

Platæa and Mycale.—Xerxes did not take all his army with him. He left three hundred thousand men behind. Mardonius, who was left in command, told him that with these troops he could easily conquer the rest of Greece. He did not know the people he had to deal with. The next year they collected an army of seventy thousand men, led by Pausa'nius, a Spartan king, and Aristides, the just Athenian, who had come back from exile. They met the Persians at Platæ'a and gained a noble victory. On the same day (September 25, 479 B.C.) the Greek fleet met the Persians at Mycale (Mic'a-le), in Asia Minor, and won another splendid victory. That ended the war. The Persians never ventured to invade Greece again.

CHAPTER III

ATHENS IN THE AGE OF PERICLES

The Glory of Athens.—The Persian wars made Greece great. All the civilized world of Asia and Africa had yielded to the great Asiatic Empire, but little Greece had defied and beaten it, and saved Europe from its control. And in this Athens had won the chief glory. Sparta had contributed the immortal three hundred to Thermopylæ, but Athens had done nearly all the rest. It now lay a ruin, but even its ashes were glorious.



Gate of Agora or Oil Market.

The New City and Themistocles.—Athens was not left long in ruins. It was rebuilt on a far greater and grander scale than before. It had been a small and ordinary city; it now became a great and splendid one. The new city was laid out seven miles in circuit, and around it was built a strong and lofty wall. And as its power lay in its ships, still stronger walls were built round the harbor of Piræ'us, four miles away. This was the work of Themistocles, the victor at Salamis. He was an able man, but he was not honest. He took bribes and grew very rich in dishonorable ways, and in the end he was banished

from Athens. Far and wide he wandered, and at last found a resting-place in the court of the Persian king. Xerxes was dead and a new king on the throne, who so admired his visitor that, as the legend goes, he gave him three cities for his support,—one to supply him with bread, one with meat, and one with wine. This is the way that dishonor and disgrace are sometimes rewarded, but it is not the usual way.



PLAN OF THE CITY OF ATHENS.

The Confederacy of Delos.—The war with Persia was still kept up in Asia Minor, and for self-defence the islands, the Ionian cities on the coast, and some of the states of Greece formed what was called the Confederacy of Delos.

Athens, whose fleet made her powerful, was at its head. Sparta had formerly been the leading city in Greece, but was set aside by Athens in this confederacy; yet most of the states still held to Sparta, and the Grecian world was divided into two great leagues under these rival cities.

Athens and Sparta.—The power of Athens grew very rapidly. It soon obtained full control of the navy and of the funds of the Confederacy, and it was not long before some of the money in the treasury was spent for other things than the war with Persia. While Athens grew strong, Sparta grew weak. An earthquake destroyed much of the city, and this was followed by a rebellion of the Helots,—descendants of the old natives of the land, whom the Spartans held as slaves. This war lasted for ten years, and kept the soldiers of Sparta too busy at home to think of fighting abroad.



PERICLES.

A Great Statesman.—During this period a great statesman rose to the head of affairs in Athens, the famous Per'icles, under whom that city had the most brilliant epoch in its history. Never before nor since has any city seen so many great poets, philosophers, artists, and statesmen in the lifetime of a single man as then appeared. We cannot go on till we have told the story of Athens during the age of Pericles.

Pericles and Cimon.—Pericles was no proud noble or aristocrat. He was a mere private citizen, who became the

leader of the democratic party, and was opposed by Ci'mon, the son of Miltiades, head of the aristocratic party. In the end Cimon was banished as a friend of Sparta, and Pericles was left alone as the leader of the Athenians.

Pericles as a Statesman.—For once the Athenians had chosen wisely. Pericles threw all power into the hands of the people, making the government a pure democracy. He was an orator of fine powers and a man of high character and able statesmanship, ruling not by force but by persuasion. Everything was settled by the Assembly of the People, and all the private citizens were made familiar with public affairs. Never had any people enjoyed such complete political liberty. For forty years this famous statesman was the practical ruler of what was then the most brilliant city in the world.

The Long Walls.—Let us see now what Pericles did. He kept up the fleet and tried his best to make good sailors and naval warriors of the Athenians. And that the city might not be cut off from its port, he got the people to build what were called the Long Walls, great ramparts of stone more than four miles long and two hundred yards apart, which joined the walls of the city with those of Piræus, its port. Now Athens could not be cut off from its ships or the supplies they brought from all parts of the sea. And there was room enough within the walls for all the people of Attica.

How Pericles adorned Athens.—While this was doing, Pericles was using the funds of the Confederacy to adorn Athens with magnificent buildings and splendid works of art. The grand temple called the Par'thenon was built on the Acropolis, and other grand and beautiful edifices, enriched with the rarest sculptures and statuary, were built in

various parts of the city. The whole city became brilliant and splendid in aspect. Pericles had found it wood and left it marble, and its statues became so numerous that they seemed almost to outnumber the living inhabitants. The temples of Athens were not wonderful for vastness of size, like those of Egypt, but were remarkable for the beauty of their architecture and their exquisite sculptures.

A Seat of Genius.—Pericles did more than this. He made Athens a home for the ablest men of the world,—poets, artists, orators, philosophers. Great writers, dramatists, and thinkers made their way to this city, and it grew rich with the fruits of genius. The theatre was made free to all, and the finest works of the greatest dramatists were performed for the general public. Men before had served in the army, on juries, in the courts, etc., without pay, but Pericles saw that all were paid, so that the poorest men could attend to public duties without loss. He even went so far as to supply free banquets for the people on festival days.

A Warlike City.—And while this was going on at home, Athens was waging war abroad. In one year it made war in Cyprus, in Egypt, in Phœnicia, and in some other places. As for Persia, the tide was so turned that in the year 450 B.C. Artaxerxes, the king, made a treaty with Athens in which all the Greek cities of Asia Minor were declared free, and he promised not to send a ship into Grecian waters nor bring a soldier within three days' march of the coast.

Complaints against Athens.—Athens had risen from a burned and ruined city into the position of the capital of an empire. It is true that the other members of the Confederacy of Delos complained bitterly of their money being used in order that Athens might "gild itself as a proud and

vain woman decks herself out with jewels." But Pericles answered that as long as the Athenians kept back the Persians they had the right to use the remaining money as they pleased. And some of the allies who refused to pay were made to do so by force.

A Feeble Empire.—You may see that the empire of Athens was not a very strong one. The allied cities were like conquered subjects, forced to pay tribute, and were full of rebellious feeling. Such a confederacy as this could not last. It was like a house built upon the sand. Even when Athens was at the most splendid point in its career the end of its power was at hand. But this did not come from its rebellious allies, but from the power and jealousy of its rival, Sparta. A mighty struggle between the two leading cities of Greece was soon to come, the famous and ruinous Peloponnesian War.

CHAPTER IV

THE PELOPONNESIAN AND THEBAN WARS

Greek meets Greek.—Now we have a sad story to tell, a story of cruel war among brother states, of the strife of Greeks with Greeks, and the ruin and desolation of much of the land. It arose from the struggle for power between Athens and Sparta, and left Greece, at the end of seventy years of useless bloodshed, so weak and exhausted that she readily fell victim to a foreign foe. It is a tale of woe and disaster, but one that must be told.

Sparta and Athens.—Before the Persian war, Sparta had been the leading power of Greece. That war made Athens great and strong, and the two soon became rivals for supreme control. Athens was lord of the sea, with its islands and shores. Sparta was chief among the inland cities and states. Athens believed in liberty and equality, Sparta in the rule of the aristocrat, and a long and bitter contest began between these strong rivals.

The Peace of Pericles.—You have read how Pericles made Athens the most beautiful and noble of cities. This great statesman loved peace, and in the year 445 B.C. he made a thirty years' truce with Sparta, called the Peace of Pericles. No doubt he hoped to go on in his splendid work of making Athens the most magnificent and intellectual city in the world. But the fates were against him, and before the thirty years were half over he saw that war was near at hand.

The Jealousy of Sparta.—The fact is that Sparta was jealous of the greatness of Athens and was eager for an excuse for war, that she might humble this proud city. An excuse came when Athens quarrelled with and sent troops against one of her allied cities, which was in a colony founded by Corinth, one of the chief cities of the Spartan league. All Greece was stirred up by this quarrel, and Sparta decided that Athens had broken the truce. War was at once declared and the mighty struggle between the rival cities began.



Greek Peasant going to Market.

The Spartans invade Attica.—Both cities were strong, but the strength of Athens lay in its powerful navy, that of Sparta in its large and well-drilled army. One was strong on the water; the other on land. So when, in the year 431 B.C., a Spartan army marched into Attica, all the people of that state were made to come within the walls of the city, leaving their farms, hamlets, and villas to the foe. Soon they had before them, as they looked from the high walls, the sad sight of flames rising on all sides from their villages and farm-houses. And when the Spartan bands marched up to the very city gates, Pericles had much trouble to keep the

furious people from rushing out to fight for their burning homes.

The Plague at Athens.—The next year the Spartans came again, and burned and ruined all that had escaped them the year before. And what was still worse, a frightful pestilence broke out within the crowded city, and hundreds of men, women, and children died miserably. It is said that about one-fourth of the fighting men perished. Worst of all, Pericles was among those who died of the plague. Thus the people were left without a leader, for no one so wise as he rose to take his place.

The Fate of Mitylene.—While the Spartans were thus destroying the Attic farms the fleet of Athens was busy at sea bringing food to the crowded city and doing what harm it could to the coast lands of the hostile states. It was a bitter and cruel war. Not only were many men slain in the field, but nearly all those taken prisoners were brutally killed. Two things took place which show how merciless were the Greeks in spite of their boasted civilization. In the year 428 B.C. the city of Mitylene (Mit-i-le′ne), situated on the beautiful island of Lesbos, threw off the rule of Athens. An army was sent there and the rebellion was soon put down, and then the assembly of the Athenian people met to decide what should be done with the rebels. Pericles was dead, and Cle′on, a loud-voiced demagogue, had taken his place as a leader of the people. He was a heartless and cruel wretch, and proposed that all the men of the place, six thousand in number, should be killed and all the women and children sold as slaves. So great was his influence over the people that this terrible decree was passed, and a galley was sent at once to Mitylene, carrying the deadly order to the general in command. That night there was not much sleep

in Athens. The citizens thought of what they had done, and were filled with horror. Early the next day the assembly was called together again and the frightful sentence was hastily repealed. A swift trireme was sent out in the utmost haste after the former galley, which had twenty-four hours the start. Never had the oarsmen of Greece rowed as those men did. It was with them a question of life and death. They reached Mitylene just in time to save its citizens from ruthless slaughter. But the sentence they bore was cruel enough. A thousand of the nobles were killed, the city was destroyed, and most of the land of the island was seized by citizens of Athens. That was what even Athens called mercy in those days.

The Siege of Platæa.—The Spartans were still more cruel at Platæa, a small city near which the Grecian army had gained one of its glorious victories over the Persians. Platæa had long been friendly to Athens, though it belonged to a state of the Spartan league, and an army from Sparta came and laid siege to it. There were only four hundred and eighty men within the walls of the little city, but they were brave patriots, and for two long years they defended themselves against their foes. Then, when hope was at an end, the most of them broke through the Spartan lines one stormy night and escaped. All the men that remained were cruelly put to death, the women were sold as slaves, and the little city was razed to the ground. That was the way the Spartans kept the oath of their king that the battle-field of Platæa should be forever held sacred.

The War goes on.—Thus the war went on. Every summer the men of Sparta marched into the ruined fields of Attica and stood with their long spears before the impregnable walls of Athens. But all the real fighting took

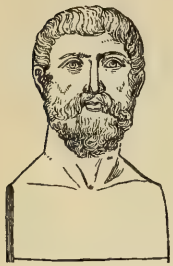
place elsewhere, and at one place three hundred Spartans were captured on an island and taken as prisoners to Athens. At length, after this had gone on for ten years, a treaty of peace was made which was to last for fifty years. But there is true peace and false peace, and this treaty was not worth the ink it took to write it. Athens and Sparta did not fight directly with each other, but their allies kept on fighting and they helped them all they could.

The Character of Alcibiades.—Now we come to the events that led to the defeat and fall of Athens. They were due to a false-hearted young nobleman named Alcibi'ades, a nephew of Pericles and a pupil of Socrates, the famous philosopher. He was rich and handsome, an able man and a fluent speaker, and he soon won the ear of the crowd. But he was ambitious and dissolute, he had no principle, and he led the Athenians to ruin. In those days the assembly of the people ruled Athens, but Alcibiades ruled the assembly, and the throng voted in favor of everything he wished.

An Imperial Scheme.—There was a large city in the island of Sicily, named Syr'acuse, which was on the side of the foes of Athens, and Alcibiades told the people that it would be a splendid thing for the Athenians to capture and hold that city. This would help them to conquer all the colonies in Italy and Africa, and Athens would become the most powerful city in the world. He laid this fine scheme before them in such a way that they all voted for it, and the largest expedition that ever left Athens sailed to Sicily to capture Syracuse. Alcibiades and an old general named Nicias (Ni-ki'as) were at its head.

A Fatal Loss to Athens.—If Alcibiades had stayed with the fleet he might have taken Syracuse, but he had enemies at home who accused him of an act of impiety against the

gods, and he was ordered to Athens for trial. Instead of coming home, he fled to Sparta, where he turned traitor and told the Spartans what they should do to help Syracuse. The result was very bad for Athens. Its fleet was destroyed and its army defeated. The vast expedition was ruined. Seven thousand of the best soldiers of Athens were crowded as prisoners into stone-quarries, where hundreds of them died. Most of the remainder were sold into slavery. So by listening first to Alcibiades, and then listening to his enemies, the Athenians had wrecked the power of their city.



BUST OF ALCIBIADES.

How the War went on.—After that all went wrong with Athens. The Spartans, who for seven years had kept out of Attica, now marched back again, and this time they built and garrisoned a strong fort only twelve miles from Athens. The allies of Athens fell away on every side. Alcibiades went to Asia Minor and got the Persians to help the Spartans. It is true that later on he came back to his own people, helped them to win some fine naval victories, and led the Persians away from the Spartans. But he had ruined Athens, and her case was hopeless. His career ended in defeat, and then in death at the hands of the Persians. Thus passed away a man who, if he had been true to his country, might have saved it and won himself endless fame. But a strong mind with a false heart can only lead to infamy.

The Loss of the Fleet.—The long war was now near its end. In 405 B.C. the Athenian fleet was surprised by the Spartans at a place called Æ′gos-pot′a-mos, on the Hellespont, and nearly all the ships were destroyed. Three

thousand prisoners were taken and all of these were cruelly put to death, and were even denied the sacred rite of burial. That ended the war for Athens. Its fleet, to which it trusted, was destroyed. The city was attacked by sea and land, and the next year fear of starvation forced the citizens to surrender, after the war had lasted for twenty-seven years.

The Long Walls go down.—This was a terrible fate for the proud city, which less than a century before had saved Greece from the Persian yoke. The Spartans cared nought for this. The long walls were torn down, falling to the sound of flutes and the steps of dancers crowned with garlands of flowers. Some of the victors proposed to level the whole city and turn its site into pasture-land, but the Spartans themselves opposed this. They would not consent, they said, "to put out one of the eyes of Greece."

Sparta is Supreme.—Sparta was now supreme, but it was at a terrible cost to Greece. During those long years of war Athens and her allies had lost sixty thousand men and all their ships. Everywhere in Greece could be seen the ravage of war. Cattle now grazed where once large towns had stood. The marks of ruin were to be seen on all sides, and Greece paid bitterly for the crime of its fraternal war. As for Athens, it was left under a Spartan garrison; thirty persons being placed in power, who put numbers of citizens to death without trial, and were well named the Thirty Tyrants. Their rule lasted only eight months. Then the exiles from Athens returned with arms in their hands, drove them out, and restored the old form of government.

Soldiers of Fortune.—Just here we must pause to tell an interesting story. Peace had come, and Greece was full of soldiers out of business, men to whom war was a trade.

At that time there was a Persian satrap, or governor, in Asia Minor named Cyrus, brother to King Artaxerxes. He wanted to be king himself, and rebelled against his royal brother, setting out with a hundred thousand men to fight for the throne. A large number of the Greek soldiers of fortune, more than ten thousand in all, went with him.

The Battle of Cunaxa.—Away they marched through Asia Minor and Syria to the Euphrates, and here, at a place named Cunax'a, near Babylon, they met the Persian army of more than half a million of men. The Greeks fought as at Marathon and won the victory, but Cyrus was killed in the battle, and nothing was left to fight for. The Greeks were now in the greatest danger. All their leaders were killed by Persian treachery, and the ten thousand were left in the heart of the Persian Empire without a commander, while a vast multitude of hostile Persians were near by.

The March of the Ten Thousand.—The brave Greeks did not lose their courage. New leaders were chosen. It is to one of these named Xenophon (Zen'o-fon) we owe the story of their wonderful homeward march, the most famous in history. They did not know the country nor the language of its people. They had to fight their foes at a dozen points. Hunger and cold assailed them. Dangers faced them everywhere. Yet they marched on for more than fifteen hundred miles, and at length a glad cry of "The sea! The sea!" broke out as their eyes fell on the dancing waters of the Euxine, or Black Sea. Here they were safe, and took ship for home. Their story, as told by Xenophon, is a wonderful one, which all of you should some time read.

Greece under Spartan Dominion.—While this was going on, the Greeks at home were learning that Sparta was not a good master. Its people were stern, cruel, and tyrannical.

They had none of the soft manners or popular liberty of Athens. It was their aim to put in every town a ruling body of ten persons and a governor of their own choice. Their oppression became so great that a strong spirit of



PIRÆUS, THE PORT OF ATHENS.

revolt arose. Even the Persians grew afraid of them, for their general, Agesila'us, was winning important victories in Asia. To check their progress Persian gold was sent to Athens, with which the long walls were built again, and soon the famous old city had its ships once more on the sea. In 394 B.C., eleven years after Athens had fallen, one of its admirals defeated the Spartan fleet. The tide was beginning to turn.

The City of Thebes.—But it was in the year 371 B.C. that Sparta's power fell, and it was to a city whose name we have not yet mentioned that it owed its downfall. This city was Thebes, the chief city of Bœo'tia, a state lying north of Attica. There were other cities which struck for freedom, Corinth and Argos among them, but it was Thebes that won it, and put itself for a time at the head of the Grecian cities.

Two Famous Generals.—At that time there was in Thebes a band of three hundred men called the Sacred Band, who were sworn to stand by one another to the last. At their head was an able soldier named Pelop'idas, and he had a friend named Epaminon'das, who was soon to show himself one of the ablest generals ever known in the history of Greece. It was by these two men that the rule of Sparta was brought to an end.

The Spartans defeated.—Pelopidas struck the first blow for freedom when he and his Sacred Band drove the Spartan tyrants out of Thebes. A war followed, and in 371 B.C. a Spartan army, twelve thousand strong, marched to the conquest of Thebes. Epaminondas and the Thebans met them with only half as many men, but on the famous field of Leuc'tra he gave the Spartans the first great defeat they had ever sustained.

The Thebans before Sparta.—This great victory startled all Greece. It proved that the Spartans were not invincible, as they had been thought, and soon the victorious Thebans were marching to the Peloponnesus to aid the state of Arcadia, which was in arms against Sparta. Wherever Epaminondas went victory went with him, and for the first time in its history, it is said, the women of Sparta saw the smoke of an enemy's fires. Their city had no walls, for

the spears of its soldiers had long been thought all the walls it needed.

Epaminondas falls.—Four times in all the Theban army marched into the Peloponnesus, and for ten years Thebes stood supreme among the cities of Greece, for victory followed the steps of its heroes. At Mantine'a, in Arcadia (362 B.C.), Epaminondas fought his last battle and died with the shouts of victory of his men ringing in his ears. Pelopidas had already fallen, and, her great leaders gone, Thebes fell back to her old level.

An Exhausted Land.—Thus had three cities in succession risen to the supreme position in Greece. They had made much history, but they had worn out Greece by their struggles, and the time was at hand for a foe more terrible than the Persian to tread upon her glorious soil and bring them all under subjection.

CHAPTER V

PHILIP OF MACEDON AND ALEXANDER THE GREAT

A Remarkable Era.—In all the history of the world there is no more wonderful period than that of the three centuries beginning about 600 B.C. and ending about 300 B.C. Let us stop and briefly consider the great events which took place and the vast political progress of the world in those three centuries. Before they began, the old kingdoms of Babylonia, Assyria, and Egypt had existed alone for hundreds or thousands of years; but in this brief period the whole map of the world was changed and new and great powers rose on the ruins of the old.

From the Medes to the Macedonians.—In the beginning of this period the Medes came rushing from their hills, and the famous old empire of Assyria vanished, to be heard of no more. Then came the Persians, pouring like a torrent over Babylonia and Egypt and spreading their dominion from India to the borders of Europe. Next the small country of Greece defeated the mighty empire of Persia, and in it rose the noblest civilization the world had ever known. All this you have read, but you have yet to learn how Greece ruined itself by its foolish and endless wars and a new power robbed it of its liberty; and how this new power, Macedo'nia by name, conquered the vast Persian Empire and founded one of the mightiest dominions the world has ever seen. This was certainly a wonderful change within three centuries of national life. Most of it has been given in these

pages, but the remarkable story of Macedonia and its kings remains to be told.

Macedonia and its Kings.—Macedonia was not a large country. It was smaller than Greece, and lay just north of the mountains of that land. It was not a republic like the Grecian states, but was governed by a king. Its people



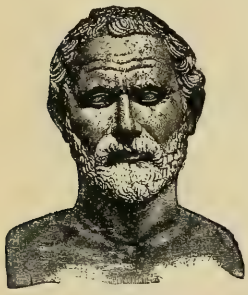
A Macedonian Coin.

lived in the country instead of in cities, and were looked on and despised by the proud Greeks as rude barbarians. But in time they learned many of the arts of Greece and became partly civilized, while their kings must have come from the Grecian race, for they were allowed to take part in the famous Olympian games, which were open to none but men of pure Grecian blood. The greatness of Macedonia came from two of its kings,—Philip II., or Philip of Macedon, and his son, Alexander the Great. These two men, kings of a little country in a corner of Europe, made a mighty revolution in the world's history in the brief space of thirty-six years.

The Macedonian Phalanx.—It was in the year 359 B.C. that Philip came to the throne. He was a man of great political ability,—shrewd, cunning, artful, skilled in diplomacy, and learned in the art of war. The Greeks had won their victories over the Persians largely by their close ranks and their long spears. Philip gave his men spears twice

as long as those of the Spartans—twenty-one feet long—and organized them into the famous Macedonian phalanx, a solid mass of men, sixteen ranks deep, with shield touching shield, and bristling with rows of lance-points in front. For two centuries the phalanx won on every field on which it fought.

Philip the Plotter.—Philip of Macedon was a very ambitious man. He wanted to be the lord and master of Greece, and he thought that he could make himself such more easily by plotting than by fighting. So he began to take a part in all the affairs of Greece. Small wars went on between the states as of old, and Philip had a hand in them all, each time making some small step forward. For twenty years he went on, using arms, intrigue, bribery, and other underhand means, and every year increasing his power in Greece.



DEMOSTHENES.

Demosthenes the Orator.—Most of the Greeks were blind to Philip's plots, and many of them were won over by his arts or his bribes, for he bought over the weak and dishonest by his money. But there was one great Athenian who saw through his schemes and was too good a patriot and too honest a man to take his bribes. This was the famous orator, Demos'thenes, the greatest public speaker the world has ever known. Never had men heard such wonderful eloquence as his when he told the people of Athens of the danger in which they stood, and laid bare before them the cunning plots of Philip of Macedon. Unless they took arms for liberty, he told them, they would soon be crushed by this wily plotter; and this he said again and again.

The Conquest of Greece.—At length the Athenians were roused to war by their great orator. The Thebans joined them, and they met the army of Philip at a place called Chærone'a, in Bœotia. The Greeks fought with their old courage, but they could not stand before the Macedonian phalanx. The Sacred Band of Thebes was killed to the last man and the army of Athens was put to flight. Philip was victor, and the liberty of Greece was at an end. This famous battle was fought in 338 B.C. Two years afterwards Philip was killed by an enemy at the marriage of his daughter, and his son Alexander succeeded to the throne.

A Boy Monarch.—Alexander was then only twenty years old—still no more than a boy. But he was no common boy. When only fourteen he had tamed the savage horse Buceph'alus, which no one else dared to mount. At sixteen he had saved his father's life in battle. At eighteen he defeated the Sacred Band of Thebes on the battle-field of Chæronea. Those who looked on him as a boy king, whom they could deal with as they pleased, soon found their mistake. All revolts were put down. The wild tribes of the north that attacked Macedonia got a severe lesson. The city of Thebes broke into rebellion, and was made a terrible example to Greece. This famous city was swept from the earth, and all its people—thirty thousand in number—were sold for slaves. Thus it was that the young king taught the people of Greece that it was not safe to rebel, and cleared the way for the greater work which lay before him.

Philip's Plan of Conquest.—Philip had devised a great plan of conquest, which his son now took up. He proposed to lead all the fighting men of Macedonia and Greece against Persia and punish the Persians for their old invasion

of Greece. This pleased the Greeks, for they hated the Persians and were always ready for adventure and war. So, in the year 334 B.C., two years after he had come to the throne, Alexander crossed the Hellespont with an army and set out on one of the most remarkable expeditions the world has ever known.

A Perilous Expedition.—Here was a young man of twenty-two, with only thirty-five thousand fighting men, invading an empire that covered a third of Asia and that could easily put a million armed men into the field. Yet he knew that this empire was little more than a hollow shell, and it is doubtful if he felt any fear, for he had confidence in himself and in the men he led. With their splendid organization one of the Greek soldiers was worth a score of the loosely organized Persian warriors.

The Victories of Alexander.—The young king met an army larger than his own at the Granicus, and quickly put it to flight. Then he marched through Asia Minor, and at Issus, on the borders of Syria, he came face to face with an immense Persian army, six hundred thousand strong. Here he showed how great a soldier he was. This vast army was utterly defeated, and King Darius fled, leaving his mother, wife, and children as prisoners in Alexander's hands.

The Gordian Knot.—Perhaps some of you may have read of the famous Gordian knot. This was a knot which Gordius, King of Phrygia, had made in the harness of his chariot. It was so intricate that no one could untie it, and an oracle had said that whoever did so would conquer the world. Alexander tried for some time, and then, losing patience, he drew his sword and cut the knot, saying that that was the way to open it. Since then "to untie the

Gordian knot" has meant to meet any difficulty boldly. To Alexander it meant the conquest of Asia.

The Conquest of Tyre and Egypt.—Alexander now left Darius to do what he pleased, and turned south and besieged the famous Phœnician city of Tyre. He took this by building a great causeway through the sea to the island and breaking through the wall. Eight thousand of its people were killed and thirty thousand sold as slaves. That was the way he had treated Thebes, and now every place submitted in fear to the terrible conqueror. He marched on until he came to Egypt, and this country, which was tired of its Persian masters, gave up to him without a battle. Here Alexander showed that he knew something besides fighting, for he founded the city of Alexandria, which became the greatest commercial city of the ancient world.

Darius defeated at Arbela.—Alexander was now master of all the provinces of Persia which bordered on the Mediterranean. He left no enemies behind him as he led his small but victorious army into the heart of the empire. Here, at a place called Arbe'la, near the ruins of ancient Nineveh, Darius had collected a vast army of a million men. Alexander met them with less than fifty thousand, yet he put the million to flight. The Macedonian phalanx, with its forest of spears, "cut through the ranks of the Persians as a boat cuts through the waves." Darius fled for safety, but was pursued so closely that one of his nobles killed him to save him from becoming a prisoner of war. There was no further opposition. The huge, loose empire had been conquered in three years of war, and the people looked on the victor as their king.

In the Persian Capitals.—Alexander marched on. Babylon opened its gates to the conqueror. At Susa, an-

other Persian city, he found a vast treasure in gold and silver, said to be worth over fifty million dollars. At Persepolis there was greater treasure still, valued at one hundred and thirty-eight million dollars. Here were the splendid palaces of the Persian kings. Alexander had these set on fire and burned to the ground, while hosts of the people were killed or sold into slavery. That was his idea of revenge for what the Persians had done to the Greeks a century and a half before. It was a cruel and barbarous act.

The Conquering March of the Greeks.—The conqueror was not satisfied. The world was scarce large enough for his ambition. He marched far on into the east, conquering the distant countries of Bac′tria and Sogdian′a, and then turned south into India, defeating every army he met. On the Indus River he was faced by a warlike king named Porus, who fought bravely for his crown. At length he was taken and brought as a prisoner before Alexander.

"How do you think I should treat you?" asked the victor.

"As a king," replied the proud Porus.

This bold answer pleased Alexander, who gave him back his kingdom.

Alexander is forced to turn back.—The Macedonian conqueror had now won a wider empire than that of Persia had ever been. But he was not satisfied. He wished to go on and on, fighting new battles and winning new kingdoms. The thirst for victory was strong upon him. His soldiers did not agree with him. They said they had gone quite far enough, and their complaints forced Alexander to return. They wished to enjoy the spoil they had gained instead of fighting new barbarians.

The Return from India.—Alexander founded Greek cities and colonies in the lands he had won, so as to hold them


EMPIRE
of
ALEXANDER
THE GREAT
Alexander's Route
Routes of Generals
Imperial Roads
Greek Colonies
Ab-Abydas, Chan-Chanicus,
Hollasp-Hollaspantus Pamph-Pamphylia
KILOMETERS
100 0 100 300 500
100 0 100 200 300
STATUTE MILES
Longitude East from Ferro
C.S. H.&CO., N.Y.
PONTUS EUXINUS
MARE CASPIUM (Hyrcanium)
MARE INTERNUM
Mare Erythræum
Persicus Sinus
ARABIA
ARIANA
INDIA
Sarmatæ
Getæ
Thyssagetæ
Massagetæ
Sacaraucæ
Dahæ
Macedonia
Thracia
Armenia
Cappadocia
Phrygia
Lydia
Assyria
Mesopotamia
Babylonia
Susiana
Persis
Carmania
Gedrosia
Parthiaea
Aria
Arachosia
Bactria
Sogdiana
Ægyptus
Libya
Cyrenaica
Alexandria
Memphis
Babylon
Persepolis
Pasargadæ
Syene

under his dominion. He built a fleet to take back part of his army, but the greater part marched through the country now called Belu'chistan, a land of mountains and deserts, where the soldiers suffered terribly for food and water and many of them died. After a frightful march, all of them that were left reached Persepolis, which they were glad enough to see. It was now the year 324 B.C., ten years after Alexander had set out on his career. In that short time he had conquered nearly all the civilized world.



STATUE OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT.

But in all his conquests, Alexander had not conquered himself. His vanity was so great that he wanted people to call him a god, and he put to death a Greek author who would not worship him. He had taken the place of the Persian kings, and now copied all their foolish pomp and show. He made the great city of Babylon his capital, and here his love of pleasure led him into the wildest drunkenness and dissipation. He was full of new schemes of conquest. The whole world lay before him. There were Arabia and Africa and Italy and Spain waiting to be conquered. But while he was laying out these great plans death conquered him. His midnight orgies brought on a violent fever, and he died a victim to his excesses, in the thirty-second year of his life (323 B.C.).

CHAPTER VI

THE MACEDONIAN EMPIRE

Alexander as a Statesman.—Alexander of Macedonia has been justly called Alexander the Great. He was not only great as a soldier, but also great as a statesman, and showed this in the steps he took to make Persia and Greece one nation. To do this he built cities in various places, with Grecian government and customs. He married a princess of the east and got thousands of his soldiers to marry Persian wives. He put able men in office, whether they were Persians or Greeks. He made Greek the language of official life, and the civilized ways and manners of Greece were introduced. Though he ruled for ten years only, the work he did lasted for centuries.

To the Strongest.—When Alexander lay dying some one asked him to whom he would leave his empire. "To the strongest," he said, and he handed his signet ring to Perdic'cas, one of his generals. But Perdiccas did not show himself very strong, nor did any of his fellow-officers, and for twenty-two years there was fighting for power between the ambitious generals. At the end of that time, in the year 301 B.C., a fierce battle took place at Ip'sus, in Phrygia, and after that four of the most powerful generals divided up the empire between them.

The Empire of Seleucus.—Greatest among these was Seleu'cus, who was called Nica'tor, or "The Conqueror." To him came nearly the whole of the old Persian Empire. He was a very able ruler and an ardent patron of art and

learning. It is said that he was "the greatest founder of cities that ever lived." He followed out Alexander's plan of building cities, with customs and government like those of Greece, in all parts of Asia, and some of the many cities he built lasted for centuries. One of them was An'tioch, in the north of Syria, which he made the capital of his empire, instead of Babylon, Alexander's capital. For a long time it was the chief city of Asia, and had half a million of inhabitants. To-day all its old splendor has gone, and all that remains is a little Turkish city called Antakieh.

Antiochus the Great.—After Seleucus died there were many kings to succeed him, the ablest among them being Anti'ochus the Great, who was a famous conqueror. He brought back all Southern Asia under his rule, and then, like the old Persians, he invaded Europe. Here he came into conflict with a new power, that of Rome, and was so badly defeated that he had to surrender part of his kingdom and all his ships of war, and to pay an immense sum of money.

End of the Seleucean Realm.—There is little more to say about the kingdom of Seleucus. In time it broke up into smaller kingdoms, named Pergamus, Pontus, Armenia, Parthia, etc., and in the end they all fell under the power of Rome, except Parthia. This was a kingdom made up of the barbarous tribes of the far east, who were such fierce fighters that the Romans could never conquer them.

The New Kingdom of Egypt.—Another of the kingdoms into which the empire of Alexander broke up was that of Egypt. One of Alexander's generals, named Ptolemy (Tol'e-me), became the ruler of this old land. He was a wise and able man, and he ruled Egypt well. The Greeks and Macedonians were masters there, but they treated the people of Egypt very well, and paid much respect to their old religion

and the famous monuments of the land. New and grand temples, in the old Egyptian style, were built by the Ptolemies.

A Noble City.—Alexandria, the city built by Alexander the Great, was made the capital of the new kingdom, and Ptolemy did his best to make it a rich and noble city. It grew to be a great centre of commerce, and the Pharos, or light-house, built of white marble, which stood at the harbor entrance, was so grand and beautiful that it was looked on as one of the Seven Wonders of the World. For centuries Alexandria was the greatest commercial city of the nations.

The Museum and Library of Alexandria.—Ptolemy wanted to make his capital the great centre of learning, as Athens had long been. To do this he founded the famous Museum, and also the renowned Alexandrian Library, which at one time held seven hundred thousand volumes and was the greatest library in the ancient world. Poets, artists, scientists, philosophers, and learned men of all kinds were invited to Alexandria and were generously supported by the king, and the Museum became a splendid institution, where all learning was studied and where writers and scientists were kept busily employed.

The Dynasty of the Ptolemies.—The Ptolemies reigned for three hundred years. The first three kings of this dynasty were able rulers, and under them Egypt became a great and prosperous kingdom. Then came other kings, most of whom were low and vile and disgraced the world by their vices. The last of the line was a woman, the celebrated Queen Cleopatra. Her story belongs to Roman history, and when she died Egypt became a part of Rome.

The Story of Greece.—Now we must return to the story of Greece. There were other kings who reigned over parts

of Alexander's empire, but we need not speak of them, for they were of small account; so we shall tell what now took place in Greece, which had played so glorious a part in history. You may be sure that this land of freedom did not much like to be under the rule of Macedonia, and as soon as the people heard of the death of Alexander they were full of hopes of liberty. Demosthenes, the great orator, and Hyper'ides, another orator of fame, called on the Athenians to strike for freedom, and they got a number of the Greek states to join them.



CLEOPATRA.

The Death of Demosthenes.—The war that followed was called the Lamian war. It lasted for two years, and, though some victories were won, it ended in the defeat of the Greeks. Demosthenes, who had worked so hard for the freedom of Athens, now had to flee for safety, while the other orators who had spoken in favor of the war were cruelly put to death. Demosthenes took refuge on a small island, and when the victors pursued him there, he entered the temple. A fugitive was thought to be sacred when he took refuge in a temple, and his pursuers tried by promises to induce him to leave it. But he swallowed poison and died a free man. For years he had been

the noblest patriot of Greece, and he died as great as he had lived.

The Gauls in Greece.—We are now near the end of the history of Macedonia and Greece. They suffered dreadfully in the year 279 B.C., when they were overrun by a great horde of savage Gauls, who came from western Europe. Finally these fierce invaders passed into Asia and settled the country which was called, after them, Gala'tia.

The Hostile States of Greece.—You must have seen that one great cause of the weakness of Greece was the constant fighting between its small states. If they had kept together, and fought only against their outside enemies, their country might have remained free. The time came when they saw this and began to unite into leagues. These should be of much interest to us, for the Grecian union was something like our own American Union.

The Leagues and their Weakness.—The first of these unions was the Achæan (A-ke'an) League, formed in 280 B.C. Another was the Æto'lian League. But Sparta would not join any of the leagues, and for a long time there was a war between the Spartans and the Achæan League. There was never any union of all Greece, and the petty jealousy of the states gave Macedonia the chance to gain control again.

The Fall of Macedonia.—The end of all their wars and quarrels came when the Romans began to send their armies to the east. War between Rome and Macedonia began about 200 B.C., and kept on at intervals for many years. At length, in 168 B.C., Per'seus, the last king of Macedonia, was defeated at the battle of Pyd'na, and Macedonia became a province of Rome.

Greece a Roman Province.—After that the end of Grecian liberty was near. The Romans had much respect

for Greece, and for a time the Greeks were left in freedom, but their petty internal fights were kept up, especially between the Spartans and the Achæan League. At length the Spartans asked the Romans to come to their help. They came, and soon Sparta as well as the rest of Greece was a vassal of Rome. The last battle took place at Corinth in 146 B.C., and that splendid commercial city was burned to the ground. Greece was made a Roman province under the name of Achaia—and its freedom was at an end.

Athens under the Romans.—Athens was prosperous under the Romans, and remained the world's great seat of learning. Alexandria never equalled it in fame. It was like a great university, and from all parts of the vast empire of Rome scholars flocked to its famous schools. It was long the centre of pagan lore, but its importance ceased when Christianity came, and its schools were closed by the Emperor Justinian in the year 529 A.D.

CHAPTER VII

SOCIAL AND PUBLIC LIFE IN GREECE

Love of Warfare.—You now know much of what took place in the political history of Greece. It is not a very agreeable or inspiring history. It was all very well when the Greeks were fighting bravely with strangers, who came to rob them of their land. But most of the time the brother states of Greece were fighting with each other, and showing a cruelty which would be thought frightful in our days. How much greater and nobler they would have been if they had kept their swords for their true enemies, and lived in peace and harmony together in their small country.

Importance of Greek History.—The history of the Greeks would not have been of much importance if they had not been so remarkable a people. But it was in other ways than war-making that they were important, for they were the most highly cultivated people of ancient times. They had among them the ablest poets, historians, artists, philosophers, dramatists, orators, and scientists of all the early nations, and their history is not half told until their story as artists and thinkers is given. We must therefore go on with some account of the private life and customs, the art and literature, of the ancient Greeks.

The Ancient Governments.—But something more about the political conditions in Greece must first be said. You have already been told that in the states of Greece arose the first true liberty in the world. In all the older countries

you have read about, the king was lord and master of all his people. He could do with them what he pleased, for all the power was his, and the people had no rights at all, or none which he could not set aside with a word.

Democracy in Greece.—The Greeks had no use for governments like these. They loved freedom and would not submit to tyrants. They had kings at first, though it is not likely these kings had any great power over the people. But the free-spirited Greeks soon got rid of their kings and founded governments as democratic as those of our own American States, governments like those which Abraham Lincoln said were "of the people, for the people, and by the people." That was one of the finest outgrowths of the civilization of Greece, the liberty and self-government of its people.

The Dark Side of the Grecian System.—But the brightest picture has often its dark side, and it was so in Greece. We cannot say that every man there was as good as any other man, and that all men had the same rights, for a large part of the population were slaves and had scarcely any rights at all. And these were white slaves, not negro slaves like those which our own country once had. Yet we cannot blame the Greeks much for this, since it is only of late years that the civilized world has got rid of its slaves.

A Land full of Slaves.—In Greece nearly all the free people owned slaves. A citizen was thought bad off if he had less than half a dozen slaves. In some cities, such as Corinth and others, there were ten slaves to every free man. Even in Attica, the centre of Greek culture, the slaves numbered four to one. There were about five hundred thousand people in that state, and of these four hundred thousand were slaves.

Who became Slaves.—It was the frequent wars that made so many slaves. Prisoners were usually sold into slavery, and their children also became slaves. Criminals and debtors were often sold as slaves, and there was besides a regular trade in slaves, for pirates under the name of merchants stole people from other countries and sold them into slavery.

How Slaves were treated.—Slaves in Greece were not treated badly,—as a rule, that is, for no doubt there were some cruel masters. In Sparta all the old people of the country, who had been conquered when the Dorian Greeks first came, were held in slavery. They were called Helots, and were treated so cruelly that at times they broke out in rebellion. You have read of the great Helot war, which lasted ten years.

Occupations of the People.—The slaves had to do a great part of the work, and most of the free citizens led a good, easy life. That was the reason they could give so much time to politics, the courts, the theatre, and social life. They despised all drudgery, and the principal business of the citizens of sea-shore cities, such as Athens and Corinth, was commerce. No one thought there was disgrace in this, as they did about other kinds of work, and the leading people of these cities grew wealthy through foreign trade. There were stores and shops in Athens, but most of these were kept by people of foreign birth, who had large taxes to pay, but made much money.

The Treatment of Women.—The women in many parts of Greece had little more freedom than the slaves. They were kept busy in their houses, and were seldom allowed to appear in the streets, or even to meet the friends of their husbands. Women were expected to keep to themselves

and have nothing to do with men except those of their own families, and they had very little education. This was not the case everywhere. In Sparta, for instance, the women had much more freedom. And in Athens and elsewhere there was a class of women outside the family circle who could do what they pleased and go where they pleased. Some of these became famous for their fine powers of intellect. One of them was Sappho, the celebrated poetess.

The Greek Dwellings.—Do you care to know how the Greeks lived? The dwellings of wealthy citizens were



Couch used at Meals.

divided into two parts, one for the men and one for the women. In each part there was an open court in the centre, often with a fountain, plants, and other ornaments. Around this court were the living-apartments. The cooking was done in open fire-places, and images of the household gods stood beside the hearth.

Meals and Banquets.—Some of the Greeks had three meals daily, but usually they had only two, the principal meal being near evening. They did not sit on chairs to eat, but reclined on couches before the tables, and ate while lying down. Fingers served them for knives and forks, the meat being cut up into small pieces, and table-cloths and napkins were not used. As a rule, the people were not large eaters and their food was simple; but they were fond of banquets or dinner parties, where wine was drunk and where they had music, dancing, and other entertainments. The women took no part in these banquets.

Dress of the Greeks.—The dress of the Greeks was a simple one, and that of men and women was much alike. It consisted of a skirt, long for women, but short for men, and a kind of shawl, or loose cloak, worn over it. Nothing was worn on the head, except by travellers and some kinds of workmen, and everybody went barefoot in the house, though sandals or shoes were worn in the streets.

Education in Greece.—There were no public schools like ours in Greece, but there were plenty of private schools, and most of the boys got an education. The education of the girls was got at home, and it was mostly in housework. One important part of the education of boys was in gymnastic exercises, to which the Greeks paid great attention. They were trained in wrestling, running, boxing, and other athletic sports, so as to make them strong and supple and fit them to be soldiers in their frequent wars. Each citizen was expected to be a soldier if war should arise.

The Famous Festivals.—So great was the love of the Greeks for games and sports that they had a number of grand religious festivals, in which the temple services were followed by contests of strength and skill. The most famous

of these festivals were the Olym'pic, Pyth'ian, Ne'mean, and Isth'mian games, held at different cities in honor of certain gods. At these there were contests in athletic sports, and also in poetry, oratory, and history. Here the poets read their best verses, and artists displayed their noblest works.

The Olympic Games.—The Olympic were the most famous of the games. The date of one of these, held in 776 B.C., was made the year one of the Greek chronology. After that date the names of the victors were carefully kept. The Olympic games were held once in every four years. They were in honor of Zeus, the supreme god of Greece, and were celebrated at Olympus, in the Peloponnesus. The games consisted in foot-races, boxing, wrestling, and such contests, and later on chariot-racing was introduced and became the most popular of all. The victor received a simple crown of wild olive, but he gained the greatest glory, poets sang his praise, artists made statues of him, and the people of his city welcomed him home as though he were a conqueror. Sometimes he was worshipped as one of the gods.

How the People spent their Time.—You may wish to know how the citizens of Greece, who had so much time on their hands, occupied themselves when there were no wars or festivals, and when they were not engaged in feasting or in the pleasures of the bath and the gymnasium. Well, there were other things to do. Many of them were farmers, and had their fields and their slaves to look after; many were merchants, and had their ships and store-houses to attend to; and there were also artists and skilled workmen, for there was much fine work to do which could not be trusted to the hands of slaves. Then there were public offices to be filled and the assemblies of the people had to be attended,

and the law courts called for many jurymen, who were paid well for their services.

Popular Amusements.—Those who had nothing else to do amused themselves at the theatre, or enjoyed listening to the wise talk of men like Socrates and other philosophers, who spent their time in going about and telling the people what they thought about everything. So the Greeks—the citizens of Athens in particular—found plenty to occupy them, and as the climate was mild and pleasant, they spent most of their time out-of-doors, where there was much to interest or amuse them.

CHAPTER VIII

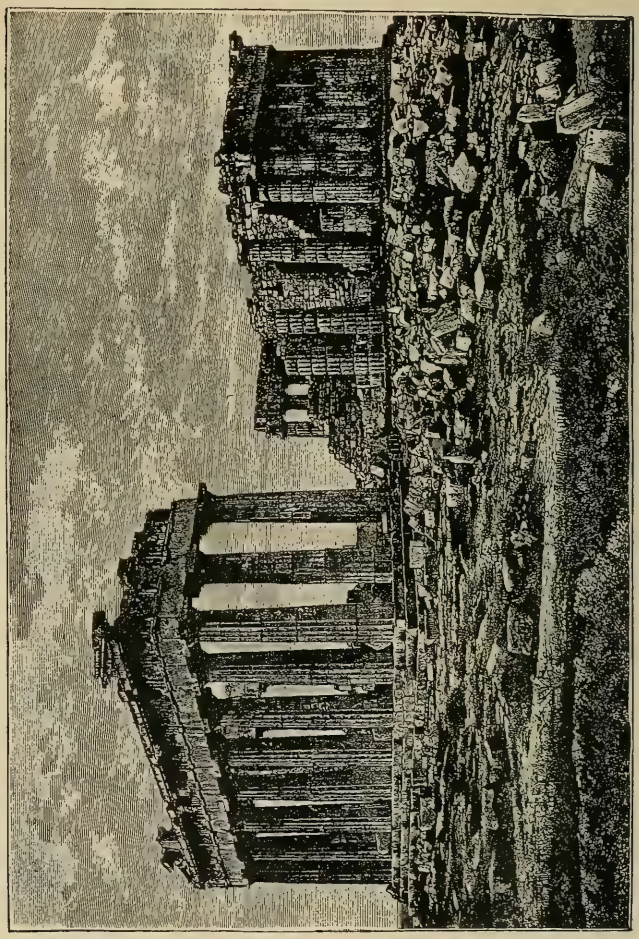
ART, LITERATURE, AND RELIGION

The Greek Genius in Art.—Art was religion with the Greeks, and religion was art. They were a people of marvellous imagination and of a wonderful sense of beauty. It is said that "ugliness gave them pain like a blow." It was this love of the beautiful and their keen, clear insight that made them the leading artists of all time. When the Greeks began to look around the world to see what it held, there was plenty of art to be seen; but it was the heavy, massive art of Egypt and Assyria, or the huge, rude stone-work of the early people of their own country. This was the kind of art to which they went to school, and it was this that they toned down into such perfect beauty and grace.

The Temples of Greece.—The Greeks did not build palaces. They had no kings. But they had plenty of gods and built many splendid temples. There is nothing in the architecture of the earth more beautiful than a Greek temple. Nearly all of those now found in Greece were built in the period after the Persian war, when there were peace and wealth. After the war with Sparta began the Greeks kept themselves too poor with their constant fighting to be able to build grand temples.

The Parthenon at Athens.—There were three styles or orders of architecture in Greece, known by the kinds of columns they used. One was the plain column called the Dor'ic, a tall, massive shaft of stone shaped like the huge pillars of Egypt. But the Greeks made it graceful, and one

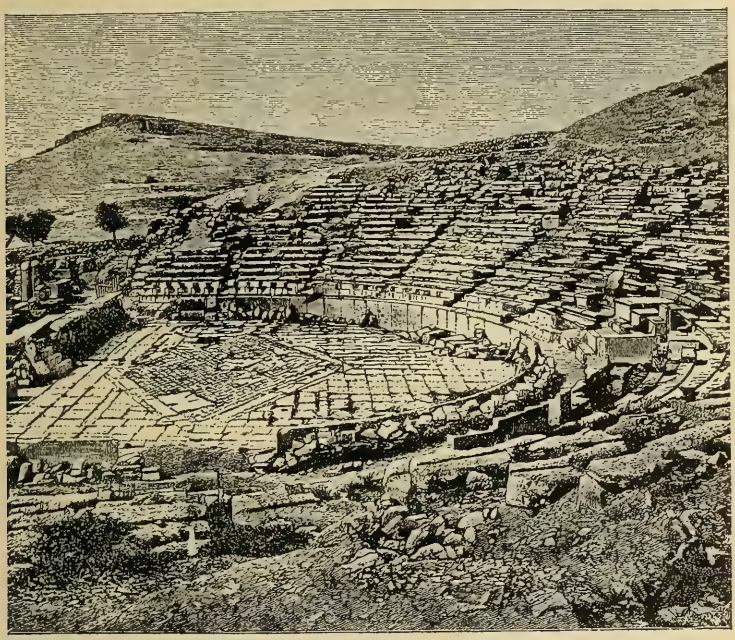
of the most famous of temples, the grand Par'thenon, at Athens, is built in this style, and is looked upon as the finest



Ruins of the Parthenon.

specimen of Greek architecture. It was ornamented by a magnificent group of sculptures, which were the work of

Phi'dias, the greatest of Greek sculptors. This wonderful building stood for more than two thousand years. Then, in one of their wars, the Turks used it for a powder maga-



THE THEATRE OF DIONYSUS AT ATHENS.
(Modern view.)

zine, and a bomb fell into the powder, which exploded and hurled into ruin more than half this noble work of art.

The Ionic Architecture.—The second style of architecture is named the Ion'ic, from the Ionian cities of Asia Minor, where it was most used. This has slender, graceful columns, with a sort of ram's horn capital—spiral volute is the technical term. Of the Ionic temples of Greece, the most celebrated was the famous temple of Dian'a at Eph'esus, in Asia,

which was begun about 600 B.C. It was burned down on the night that Alexander the Great was born, but was built again by the Romans. It was a grand building, four hundred and twenty-five feet long and two hundred and twenty broad.

Other Famous Temples.—The third style is the Corinthian, which has a very ornamental capital. It was chiefly used for temples to Venus and Flora, and in all buildings that called for much delicacy and elegance. Among the most famous of the Greek temples was the great Doric building at Del'phi, in which was the most celebrated of the oracles. It was burnt down in the year 548 B.C., and from all over Greece and Egypt money was sent to rebuild it. Here were kept the spoils of battle-fields, the rich gifts of kings, and splendid works of art, and it was several times plundered by kings and conquerors.

The Greek Theatre.—Another interesting Greek building was the theatre. The most noted of these was the great theatre at Athens, the seats of which were cut in the rock on the sloping hill of the Acropolis and were large enough to hold thirty thousand people. All the other Greek theatres were like this, situated out-of-doors, on hill-sides, with a building in front for the stage and scenery.

The Greeks were very fond of theatrical entertainments, tragedy and comedy alike. There were many actors of fine powers, and also strolling companies who wandered about the country, playing in the cart which carried them and their costumes. It was in such strolling companies as these that the art of the drama first began, and the early plays were very simple affairs.

The Famous Artists.—The land of Greece had many famous sculptors and painters. The paintings are all lost, but many statues in bronze and marble exist, and the whole

world has nothing more graceful and beautiful. Phidias, who worked on the Parthenon, is the most famous of the sculptors. His greatest work was the statue of Zeus, or Jupiter, the king of the gods. This was a figure made of ivory and gold, seated on a throne, and sixty feet high. The eyes were brilliant precious stones, and there were many costly gems in the throne. It lasted for eight hundred years and then was destroyed by fire. Among the other sculptors, one of the best known is Praxit'iles, who made beautiful statues of the goddess Venus. There are interesting stories of the painters,—how one painted a bunch of grapes so naturally that the birds came and picked at them; and another painted a curtain which his rival asked him to draw aside that he might see the picture. No Greek paintings exist, so we cannot see for ourselves these wonderful grapes and this famous curtain.

RELIGION OF THE GREEKS.

Art and Religion.—It may be seen that the art and the religion of the Greeks came very close together. The grand buildings were temples to the gods, and the finest statues were figures of Venus and other deities. So what has been said about art brings us at once to talk about religion.

The Gods of Greece.—The ancient Greeks were very religious. They had enough gods to make a small city, and believed that these deities were all around them, in the woods and the streams, the mountains and the sea. It seemed almost as if they could not turn without meeting one. There were great gods and small gods, gods of the wind and the waves, of wine and of water, of the groves and the fields, the hills and the streams, dryads and nymphs, and satyrs with the feet and tail of a goat.

What the Greek Gods were like.—Those were not the monstrous figures of Egyptian and Assyrian fancy,—men with the heads of brutes, or huge animals with human heads. The Greek love of beauty would not let them think of such figures as these. All, except the goat-footed woodland deities, were men and women, often of the greatest beauty or highest dignity.

The Gods of Olympus.—There were twelve of the great gods, whose home was on the top of Mount Olympus, a lofty, snow-clad mountain in the north of Greece, on whose summit Zeus (Zuse)—or Jupiter, as the Romans called him—had his palace, while the other great gods and goddesses dwelt around him. There are both Greek and Roman names for these gods, so that we speak of A′res or Mars, the god of war; Aphrodi′te or Ve′nus, the goddess of love and beauty; Athe′na or Miner′va, the goddess of wisdom; He′ra or Ju′no, the wife of Zeus; Ar′temis or Dian′a, the goddess of hunting; Apol′lon or Apol′lo, the god of music and song, and various others. Zeus was the king of the gods, but he was not an absolute king, for the other gods seemed to do very much as they pleased.

Other Deities.—In addition to these twelve great gods whose home was in the clouds of Olympus, there were multitudes of gods and goddesses on the earth and in the waters, including Diony′sus, or Bac′chus, the god of wine; Flor′a, the goddess of flowers; the Muses, the Graces, and hundreds of others. The lord of the ocean was Posei′don, or Nep′tune, the brother of Jupiter; and Ha′des, or Plu′to, ruled over the world of the dead.

Stories about the Gods.—The Greeks had many stories about their deities. The gods and goddesses seemed like so many men and women, wandering about and having strange

or amusing adventures, and often meddling in the affairs of men. The tales told about them are enough to fill a book, and to read them one would think that the Greeks had a very poor opinion of their gods, for they did not mind play-



LYCURGUS CONSULTING THE ORACLE.

ing tricks or telling lies, or fighting and cheating, or doing other bad and dishonest things.

The Mode of Worship.—But the Greeks feared them and worshipped them, mostly by sacrifices, which were made by priests in the open air or on mountain-tops, in groves, forests, or temples. Many animals were killed in the sacrifices, and offerings were made of fruits, wine, honey, milk, and other foods. The great games were intended as festivals to the gods, and there were splendid plays at the theatres in honor of Bacchus.

The Delphic Oracle.—Another feature of the Greek religion was what were called oracles, in which the gods were supposed to speak and to predict future events. There were many oracles of Apollo, of which the most famous was that of the great temple of Delphi. Here there arose from the ground a mysterious vapor, which threw the priestess into a kind of trance, in which she gave the answer of the god to the questions of men.

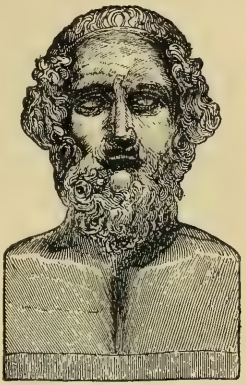
GREEK LITERATURE.

The Famous Writers of Greece.—If it be asked what made the Greeks so famous both in ancient and in modern times, some would say it was their art, others would say it was their literature. While the world has nothing more noble and beautiful than their works of art, the same may be said about their writings, or works of literature. They were the greatest thinkers and the most graceful and beautiful writers of all the ancient days, and we must say something about their great authors, the best of whose works have been preserved.

Homer, the Great Epic Poet.—There is no more beautiful poetry than that of the Greeks, for they were a people of warm and lofty imagination, while their sense of beauty taught them how to say the best things in the best way. The first of their poets of whom we know anything was the famous bard named Ho′mer, who wrote in splendid verse the story of the siege of Troy and the wanderings of the heroes who took part in it. He wrote more than two thousand five hundred years ago, yet many still think him one of the greatest poets that ever lived.

Homer and Hesiod.—Homer tells us about the deeds of the heroes and the gods, and He′siod, who came

soon after, tells us about the life of the common people and the doings of peasants and farmers in those far-off times; so, from these two old poets we learn much of the manners and customs of the Greeks in their early, half-barbarous days.



HOMER, THE BARD OF THE ILIAD.

Famous Song-Writers.—After these great writers of epic or narrative poetry there came many noble song-writers. One of the chief of these was the charming poetess Sappho (saf′fo), who sang of love and was called by Alcæus (Al-se′us), another famous poet, the "violet-crowned, pure, sweetly smiling Sappho." Another was Anac′reon, who sang of love and wine and festive sports with the utmost grace and beauty. There were many other fine lyric poets, but the most esteemed of them all was Pin′dar, whom the Greeks thought the most sublime of all their singers. He lived in Thebes, and so highly was he thought of that when Alexander, a hundred years after he died, ordered that city to be torn down, he bade his men to leave the house of Pindar stand unharmed.

The Great Dramatists.—At a later time, after the art of the theatre was learned, the most famous of the Greek poets spent their time in writing plays. There were many of these, but we have the writings of only four of them. By good fortune these four are the most famous of them all. Three of them, named Æs′chylus, Soph′ocles, and Eurip′ides, were writers of tragedy, and the fourth, Aristoph′anes, was the most celebrated of old writers of comedy. The

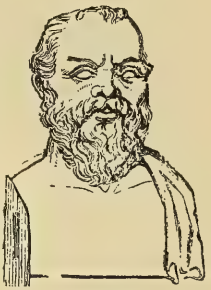
Greek play was very different from ours. Everything had to be shown as if the action were confined to one place and completed in a few hours, and all else had to be told to the audience by the chorus, a body of singers who sat where the orchestra now sits.

The Famous Historians.—But the Greek literature was not all poetry. There was much prose-writing, including history, philosophy, and other topics. The first of the famous writers of history was Herod′otus, who is called the "Father of History." He travelled in Egypt and Babylonia and Persia, and tells us in a delightful way much about life and society in those countries and of events in Greece. He was the great story-teller of the past. Another charming historian was Xenophon, who led the "Ten Thousand" out of Persia, and who told the story of their travels and wrote other works. So clear and fresh and charming is his writing that he has been called the "Attic bee." The greatest of the historians was Thucydides (Thu-sid′i-deez), who wrote about the war between Athens and Sparta in a dignified and philosophic way. He did not have the flowing style of the others named, but he was much more of a true historian.

The Orators of Greece.—We must also speak of the orators, for many of their orations were splendid works of literature, which they wrote with the utmost care and pains. One of them spent two years in writing and polishing a single speech. Per′icles was the first of the famous orators, and we still have one of his best speeches, which is certainly very beautiful. But the most celebrated orators came later, the best of them being Lys′ias, Isoc′rates, Isæ′us, Demos′thenes, Hyper′ides, and Æs′chines. The most famous of them all, and, as many think, the finest orator the world

has ever known, was Demosthenes, the great opponent of Philip of Macedon. Never have human ears heard a nobler speech than that which he made against Æschines, one of the supporters of Philip.

The Great Philosophers.—We have spoken of the Greek philosophers. There were many of them, wise men and deep thinkers, who had little faith in the gods of Greece and tried to explain all things under the laws of nature. Most celebrated among them were Soc′rates, Pla′to, and Ar′istotle, but there were others of high renown. Socrates did not trouble himself about the laws of nature, but talked of the good, the true, and the beautiful, and tried to bring men to the love of virtue. He talked everywhere and to everybody, and made many enemies as well as many friends. His enemies said that he did not believe in the gods and taught bad doctrines, so he was tried and condemned to death, and had to drink poison. But he drank it as calmly as if it had been wine, for he had no fear of death.



SOCRATES.

Plato and Aristotle.—Plato was one of the deepest thinkers and most beautiful writers among the philosophers, for he had the soul of a poet as well as the mind of a thinker. He was a pupil of Socrates, and has given us many of the sayings of that great and good man. Plato had a school of philosophy, and wrote his lectures in the form of dialogues, in which Socrates was the chief speaker. One of his pupils was Aristotle, who opened a school called the Lyce′um, and was the teacher of Alexander the Great. He had not the poetic style of Plato, but knew all the learn-

ing of that time and wrote on a great many subjects. He lectured while walking about under the trees, so his school was called the Peripatet'ic, from a Greek word meaning to walk about.

The Greek Scientists.—Aristotle was the first famous Greek scientist. He was a great observer, and wrote much about the principles of nature. Alexander the Great, when he made his expedition through Asia, sent him large numbers of animals and plants for his studies. In later years there were a number of famous scientists at Alexandria, who studied astronomy and mathematics. The best known among these were Eu'clid, Hippar'chus, and Ptol'emy.

Athens the Seat of Learning.—When Rome became the great power among the nations Greece remained the centre of learning, and Athens was still the seat of all the finest work of the intellect. There were many writers in these later years, and the best authors of Rome made the Greeks their models. Thus the literature of Greece kept alive until all learning disappeared under the deep cloud of ignorance of the Dark Ages.

SUMMARY OF GRECIAN HISTORY.

Migration of Grecian tribes, about or before	1200 B.C.
Dorian migration, about	1100 "
Greek colonies founded in Asia Minor	1000 "
Lycurgus (the Spartan law-maker)	850 "
Messenian and Spartan wars	743–668 "
Solon gives new laws to Athens	594 "
Pisistratus becomes dictator at Athens	560 "
Cleisthenes and his reforms	510 "
Ionian colonies of Asia Minor in revolt against Persia	500 "
The Persians invade Greece	492 "
Defeat of the Persians at Marathon	490 "
Xerxes and his army	480 "

Naval defeat of Persians at Salamis . . . . . 480 B.C.
The Spartans at Thermopylæ . . . . . 480 "
The Greek victory at Platæa . . . . . 479 "
Brilliant period of Athenian history under Pericles . . . . . 470–431 "
The Peloponnesian war . . . . . 431–404 "
The defeat of Nicias . . . . . 413 "
The Spartans capture Athens . . . . . 404 "
Socrates put to death . . . . . 399 "
Athens regains her naval power . . . . . 394 "
Thebes defeats Sparta and gains supremacy . . . 362 "
Philip of Macedon invades and conquers Greece . 338 "
Alexander the Great subdues the Persian Empire 334–331 "
Alexander invades India ; dies at Babylon . . . . 323 "
The Achæan and Ætolian leagues . . . . . 243 "
Philopœmoil defeats the Spartans . . . . . 207 "
Roman victory over the Macedonian king at Cynoscephalæ . . . . . 197 "
Macedonia becomes a Roman province . . . . . 168 "
Greece absorbed by Rome . . . . . 146 "
Alexander's empire in Asia broken up into minor kingdoms ; Rome conquers them all but Parthia and Bactria (which is absorbed by Parthia). Parthian kingdom . . . . . 255 B.C.–226 A.D.
New Persian empire . . . . . 226 "

SECTION III.—ROME

CHAPTER I

THE CITY AND ITS PEOPLE

The Southern Peninsulas of Europe.—The map of Europe shows us at the south the great sea called the Mediterranean, flowing far inland from the Atlantic Ocean to the shores of Asia and dividing Europe from Africa. Into this sea Europe sends down three peninsulas, Greece in the east, Italy in the centre, and Spain in the west. It is with the peninsula of Italy that we are here concerned,—the long, boot-shaped stretch of land that comes downward from the Alpine mountains and nearly touches the island of Sicily with its toe.

A Famous City.—In Italy there was built in far past times a city named Rome, and this city grew to be the centre of the greatest empire the world had ever known. It is for this reason that we are so interested in the history of the long and narrow tongue of land which spreads out on each side from the backbone of mountains called the Ap'ennines.

Early History of Italy.—If we attempt to discover the early history of Italy we seem to be gazing on a dense cloud, with faint shadows showing through it. During those thousands of years in which Egypt and Babylonia were flourishing states, Italy was the home of savages or barbarians who were far too ignorant to make any history. And long after the active and enterprising people of Greece

began to make themselves well known the tribes of Italy were still lost in the clouds of obscurity.

The Grecian Colonies.—When did the cloud first begin to lift? That is not easy to say. The ships of the Phœnicians may have borne the first rays of the sun of civilization to the shores of Italy. Long afterwards came the ships of Greece and founded colonies in the south of the long peninsula. It was when Rome was an insignificant little town, just started on the first of its seven hills, that the Greeks built in Italy the cities of Taren'tum, Syb'aris, and Croto'na, all of which were to become rich and famous; and on the neighboring island of Sicily they founded the city of Syr'acuse, which grew to be large and powerful enough to defeat the army and fleet of Athens, as you have read in the history of that city.

How Civilization spread.—These Grecian cities were like so many seeds of civilization planted deep in the soil of Italy, and no doubt the merchant ships of Greece sent their traders wandering far through that land, seeking to buy and sell, but also teaching the Italian tribes many things they had never known. At any rate, before Rome was founded, there was in central Italy a country called Etru'ria, inhabited by a people called the Etrus'cans, who had many cities and knew a good deal about the arts of civilization. They were merchants too, and they seem to have learned much from the Greeks.

The Latin Tribes.—There were other people in Italy besides the Greeks and the Etruscans. The most important of these were the Lat'ins, who dwelt in central Italy, south of the Tiber River. It is not likely there were very many of these Latins in early times, but they were to grow into a mighty nation and become the ruling people of the world.

In many ways the Latins were like the Greeks. They belonged to the same race, the Aryan, and they resembled the Greeks in religion, in language, and in many of their manners and customs.

Alba Longa and Rome.—Where the Latins came from, or how long they dwelt in Italy before the world began to learn about them, no one knows. When we first hear of them we are told that they had thirty towns, the chief of which was named Alba Longa, the "Long White City." They were troubled by the warlike Etruscans, whose country lay just north of Lat'ium, and to defend themselves the thirty towns united into the Latin League. Also a colony was sent from Alba Longa to build a sort of outpost city near the Etruscan border, on a low hill on the south bank of the Tiber, about fifteen miles from the sea. To this place was given the name of Rome.

Rome in its First Days.—Rome was founded, as we are told by the Romans, in the year 733 B.C., which was twenty-three years after the year 1 of the Greek era. At that time civilization had made much progress in Greece, but the Latins were little better than barbarians, and Rome was a miserable little town, made up of about a thousand rude thatched huts, round which a wall had been built. It served as a sort of fort for the shepherds and farmers who were abroad in their fields or with their flocks during the day, but came back within the walls at night. They had to do this for fear of their warlike neighbors.

The Story of Romulus and Remus.—This is about all we know of the founding of Rome from history. If we go to tradition we meet with a fanciful story, which no doubt contains much more poetry than fact. That is the way with all the stories of early Rome. As they do not belong to

sober history, we shall give only this one story as a sample. We are told of two brothers named Rom'ulus and Re'mus, whose mother was a priestess and whose father was Mars, the god of war. They were of the royal blood of Alba, and the king, who had taken the throne from an older king, their grandfather, ordered them to be thrown into the Tiber. There are many such stories in history. You have read those of King Sargon and Cyrus of Persia. They all end in much the same way. This time the kind river threw the boys ashore at the foot of Mount Palatine, where they were nursed by a wolf and found and brought up by a shepherd.

The Victory of Romulus.—When the royal children grew up they learned in some way their true rank. They killed the usurper and put their grandfather back on the throne. Then they decided to build a city near the spot where the river had thrown them ashore, and agreed to select the site by watching the flight of birds. Remus stood on the Aventine hill and saw six vultures; Romulus stood on the Palatine and saw twelve. As Romulus had won, he harnessed a bullock and a heifer to a plough of brass and marked out the boundaries of his city. But Remus was jealous of his brother's victory, and as the walls were being built he jumped over them in scorn; whereupon the angry Romulus drew his sword and struck him dead.

How the Romans got Wives.—This is only a part of the story. There is much more of it. Thus we are told that the first Romans got wives by inviting the neighboring Sabines to a festival and then seizing and carrying off their maiden daughters. And there is a story of war with the Sabines and how the new wives made peace between their kindred and their husbands, and how Romulus ruled long,

and finally vanished during a violent storm and was worshipped as a god.

The Legends of Early Rome.—If any of you read the older histories of Rome you will find many such stories as this. But it is now believed that they are not history at all, but only legend and tradition, like the multitude of stories about their gods and heroes told us by the Greeks. It is not likely that they are entirely false, but there is so much fable mixed with the truth that we do not know what to believe, so these romantic old stories must stay untold. More than three hundred years after Rome was founded the city was taken by a barbarian people called the Gauls, who burned it with all its old records; so its true early history is lost and we have only what the poets and the story-tellers have sent down to us.

The Division of the People.—Nearly all we know is that in early times Rome was governed by kings, who seem to have had much power over the people. Some of them were good, but others were tyrants. Under the king was the senate, or "council of the old men," who gave advice to the king which he could take or not as he pleased. The senate lasted till the end of the history of Rome. Then there was the popular assembly, like that of Greece, which elected the king, made the laws, and decided upon peace or war. This was made up of the members of the Patrician (pa-trish′an) or noble families. There was another class called Plebe′ians who were given no political rights at all, though they were freemen and could hold property. Then there were the clients, people not quite free, but under the control of the Patricians. And lastly there were the slaves. Most of these were prisoners taken in war, and in time they became very numerous. More than once they rebelled and

gave the Romans as much trouble as the Helots gave the Spartans.

The Patricians and Plebeians.—You may not find all this very interesting, but it is all important, for you should know something of the political conditions of a people who made such a mark in history. You must, above all, know about the Patricians and the Plebeians, whose quarrels had much to do with the history of the city. There were three tribes who made up the first settlers of Rome, and it was the descendants of these who were called Patricians and held all the political rights. The people who came afterwards, and there were many of them as the city grew, were the Plebeians. They had no political rights whatever in the early days, but they got the same rights as the Patricians after centuries of struggle.

The Growth of Rome.—In the story of old Rome we read of six kings, who reigned nearly two centuries and a half. We do not know much about what they did, except that they made Rome the leading city in the Latin state, until it spread far beyond its old wall, and was surrounded by a new wall, seven miles long, which brought within it the famous "Seven Hills" of Rome. This shows that Rome grew to be large and powerful in the times of the kings, for Rome was surrounded by this wall for many hundred years. One great piece of work done by the kings was to build the Cloaca Maxima, or "Great Sewer," to drain some marshy ground. It was so strongly built that it still stands and does the work of a sewer, though fully two thousand five hundred years old. They also built the Capitol, in which were altars to their chief gods, and laid out the Circus Maximus, or "Great Circus," where their chariot-races were held.

A New Division of the People.—One of the later kings, named Ser'vius Tul'lius, made a great stir among the Patricians, for he divided the people up according to the property they owned, without caring to what tribe they belonged. Five classes were made, of which the wealthiest had the most power, and the others had each its share of power. Those without property had no voice in the government, and there may have been Patricians as well as Plebeians among these.

The Last of the Kings.—The last king, Tar'quinus Super'bus, or Tarquin the Proud, was a tyrant whom all the people hated. But he was left on the throne until, as legend tells us, his son committed a monstrous crime. Then the people rose in rebellion and drove the Tarquins out of the city, and after that there were no more kings. King Tarquin went to war and fought hard to get back, but he did not succeed. The people hated the very name of king, and they swore that no king should ever rule over them again. This was done in the year 509 B.C.



CONSUL BETWEEN TWO LAUREL-CROWNED FASCES.



FASCES.

The Consuls follow the Kings.—For centuries after this the struggle between the Patricians and the Plebeians was kept up. It is a long story, but we shall cut it short and give only its main points. After the Romans got rid of

their kings they chose two chief magistrates who were called consuls, and were elected for only one year. They came from the Patricians, and each took his turn in ruling, while both were generals of the army. For centuries after that Rome was governed by its consuls.

The Secession of the Debtors.—In Rome, as in Greece, debtors could be sold into slavery. You have read how the wise Solon did away with this in Athens. In Rome the war that followed the driving out of Tarquin the Proud caused such distress that great numbers of the Plebeians fell into debt and were held as slaves. This grew so bad that the people would not bear it any longer, and in the year 494 B.C. all the Plebeians left Rome and went to a hill called the Sacred Mount, four miles away, where they began to build a new city, for they were tired of being held as slaves. The haughty Patricians were now in a panic. They soon found that they could not get along without the poor any more than the head can get along without the hands, and they asked the seceders to come back, agreeing that no more debtors should be sold into slavery.

The Power of the Tribunes.—The freeing of the slaves was not all. The people wanted to be protected, and two magistrates called tribunes were appointed to look out for their rights and guard them against injustice. The persons of the tribunes were to be held sacred. Whoever interfered with them in their duties was outlawed, and any one could kill him. Afterwards the two tribunes were increased to ten, who were elected every year. If the senate passed a law likely to injure the Plebeians, the tribunes had the power to set it aside with the word Veto, "I forbid it." The poor had made a great gain in getting the tribunes to defend them.

The Laws of the Twelve Tables.—But there were laws for this and laws for that, until it got to be hard to tell what was the law for anything, so a strong demand was made for a written and regular code of laws, which any one could read and understand. There was much quarrelling over this, but in the year 451 B.C. a Council of Ten, called decem'virs ("ten men"), was appointed to make a new set of laws. The laws they made were called the Twelve Tables, which were the basis of the laws of Rome ever after that. They were written on tablets of brass and hung up where any one could see and read them. Every school-boy in Rome had to learn these laws by heart.

Tyranny of the Decemvirs.—While the decemvirs were at work on the new laws they were given full control of everything, the consuls and tribunes giving up their offices during this time. The decemvirs liked their power so well that they would not give it up when the laws were made, and they became such tyrants that soon no liberty was left. The senate and Patricians helped them in this, but one of them committed so terrible a crime that the Plebeians again left the city and went to the Sacred Mount.



A Roman Consul in his Official Robes.

The Plebeians gain Full Rights.—This put an end to the rule of the tyrants, and the Plebeians gained some new rights before they would come

back. But the people were still not satisfied. They wanted equal rights in all offices, and the struggle was kept up for a century and a half longer. The Patricians tried hard to retain their supremacy, and resorted to tricks of various kinds to keep down the Plebeians and hold all the important offices. But the people persisted in their demands, and won the right to occupy office after office, until (300 B.C.) they had won equal rights with the Patricians, and for the first time Rome possessed a true democratic government, in which all could vote and the poorest could hold the highest positions in the state.

CHAPTER II

THE EARLY ROMAN WARS

The City in Ancient Times.—There is one very interesting fact in ancient history which we do not find in modern history. This is that the city is the great element in national life. The city counts for everything, the country for nothing. Look, for instance, at the histories of Babylonia and Assyria. They have to do only with cities and their stories. It was the same in Greece, where we seem to hear more about the city than about its people. It was especially the case in Rome. In Greece three cities struggled for supremacy and none of them held it very long. But in Rome we have to do with one city only, which became lord and master of the civilized world, and held this position for centuries. Very much of the history of Rome is made up in showing how one city gained such vast dominion.

The Story of Coriolanus.—Just here we must stop and tell the story of two Romans of the early times. These belong to the legends of Rome, but they may have much truth in them, and are well worth reading. The first is the story of a general named Coriola'nus. He was a proud patrician who had won victories over the Volscians (Vol'sheans), which gave him great influence in Rome. He used his power to try and rob the people of their rights. When a time of famine came he insisted that no corn should be given to the people unless they gave up their privileges. This made the plebeians very angry, and the tribunes of the people had him banished. Filled with fury, he went to his

old enemies, the Volscians, and led their army against Rome. There was no army to meet him, and some of the senators and the priests were sent to his camp to try and get him to spare the city. He would not listen to them, but when his mother, wife, and children were sent to his camp and begged him to be merciful his pride gave way. "Mother, thou hast saved Rome, but lost thy son," he said, and led his army away. He was right, for the Volscians soon killed him.

Cincinnatus and his Farm.—A little later comes the story of another hero of legend named Cincinna'tus, a famous man who has given his name to one of our American cities. He, too, was a patrician, but he lived on a small farm, which he worked with his own hands. He was known to be an able soldier and statesman, and one time the Romans made him consul and another time dictator. A dictator, you should know, had the power to set aside all laws, and was appointed only when Rome was in great danger. This time (458 B.C.) the Æ'quians had got a Roman army shut up in a narrow valley, from which it could not escape. The senate felt that no one but Cincinnatus could save the army, and sent envoys for him, who found him at work ploughing on his little farm. But he dropped the plough, raised an army, and marched on the Æquians, who soon found themselves between two armies and had to submit. Cincinnatus then led his army back to Rome, gave up his great power, and went back to his farm. He loved his fields more than he did power. In that way he was like our own Washington.

The Siege of Veii.—Now let us go on to the story of the wars of Rome. The nearest people to Rome were the Etruscans, and there was much figthing with them. Very likely they conquered Rome at one time, for the last three kings

were men of Etruscan birth. But in 396 B.C. the Romans conquered Veii, a large city of Etru'ria. They had besieged it for ten years, and it seemed as if they could never take it, when a general named Fu'rius Camil'lus caused a tunnel to be dug under the citadel. Through this the soldiers made their way in and the city was taken. The Romans captured many other Etruscan cities and won so much spoil that Rome grew far more rich and important than ever before. It was now master of all Latium and also of much of Etruria.

The Coming of the Gauls.—Six years after Veii was taken an event happened which threatened to sweep the city of Rome from the face of the earth. Long before that the rude tribes from the west, known as Gauls, had crossed the Alps and settled in Northern Italy. These wild barbarians now began to move southward, conquering all before them. They marched into Etruria, where they did much harm, and from there they advanced on Rome. A Roman army met them on the banks of the river Al'lia, eleven miles away, but it was utterly defeated, and Bren'nus, the leader of the Gauls, led his army to the Roman city.

The Gauls in Rome.—When the fugitives from the battlefield came rushing back to the city with news of the disaster, there was a terrible panic in Rome. The sacred vessels of the temples were buried, the holy fire was carried away, and most of the people fled. When the Gauls entered the city they found no one except eighty aged senators, who sat in the For'um, or place of assembly, in their ivory chairs and in their robes of state. The fierce invaders soon murdered these venerable men, and then they pillaged and burned the city.

The Sacred Geese.—But the Romans had not all fled. A party of them held the Capitol, which stood on a rocky

hill, and they defended it so well that the Gauls were kept besieging it for months. According to the story they came very near taking it at one time. They had found a narrow path on the steep hill, and climbed up nearly to the top. The guards were all asleep, and the place seemed doomed. But in the temple of Juno, on the summit, were kept a number of sacred geese, and these now began to cackle so loudly that they woke the garrison. Mar'cus Man'lius, the commander, was the first to reach the edge of the rock, where he flung down the Gauls who had just reached the top. Others quickly followed him and the Capitol was saved.



CAMILLUS LEADING HIS ARMY TO ROME.

Weighing the Gold.—A fatal sickness broke out among the Gauls and many of them died, so in the end they agreed to leave the city if the Romans would give them a thousand pounds of gold. The Romans agreed, but while the gold was being weighed in the Forum they complained that the Gauls were using false weights. Hearing this, Brennus cast his sword into the scale, fiercely crying out, "Woe to the vanquished!" But at this moment Camillus, the conqueror

of Veii, made his appearance with an army and came into the Forum. "Rome is ransomed with steel and not with gold," he said, and ordered the gold to be carried away. Then he attacked the Gauls and defeated them with great slaughter.

Rome a Ruin.—It is not likely that all this story is true. Part of it may have been invented to please Roman pride. Another story says that the Gauls carried away the gold, and that some of it was taken from them more than a hundred years afterwards. All we can be sure of is that Rome was left in ruins and that its public records were destroyed. It is due to this that we have very little we can believe of the earlier history of Rome.

The City is rebuilt.—When the Gauls had gone and the Romans came back they were in a state of despair. Their homes were in ashes and their cattle and crops were destroyed. Some of the poorer ones wanted to leave that dismal place and make Veii their city. But most of the people loved the hills of Rome, and at once began to rebuild their homes, as the people of Athens had done after their city was burned by the Persians. The city soon rose again on its old site, and it was not long before Rome was supreme, as before, among the near-by states.

The Growth of Rome.—We have seen Rome growing and gaining power, but as yet it was famous only among the people near at hand. Its great career did not begin until fifty years after the Gauls had gone. The new city, no doubt, had become large and important, but civilization had not made much progress in it, and the people were little better than barbarians still. They knew little and cared little about art and literature, but they were fond of war, and their armies were so well organized that they generally won.

Samnite and Latin Wars.—In the Apennine Mountains, east of Latium, there was a nation of rough and warlike mountaineers called the Sam'nites. In the year 343 B.C. Rome went to war with these. The Samnites were defeated with immense slaughter, and forced to make peace after two years of fighting. While this war was going on the Latin cities rebelled, and it took three years of hard fighting to bring them back under the power of Rome. The old Latin League was now broken up, but the cities would not submit till they were given some of those rights of which the haughty Romans had deprived them.

Romans under the Yoke.—There were two more wars with the Samnites. The first of these lasted about twenty years and ended in victory for Rome. But the proud Romans suffered a disgrace which they did not soon forget. An army of Romans became cooped up in a narrow valley called the Cau'dine Forks. They could not escape, and there was no Cincinnatus now to rescue them as in the case of the Æquians, so they had to surrender and were made to pass under the yoke. The yoke was made by placing two spears upright and another across them at the top, so low that all the soldiers had to bend in going under it. Cincinnatus had made the Æquians pass under the yoke, but now the Romans suffered the same disgrace themselves.

The League against Rome.—By this time the nations of Italy were growing much alarmed at the victories of the Romans. They felt that they must defend themselves or they might all be lost. So the Samnites made an alliance with the Etruscans, the Umbrians, the Gauls, and other nations, and began war with the hope of crushing the conquering city on the Tiber. This war lasted about three years. It ended in the greatest victory which Rome had

yet gained. In 295 B.C. the Romans met the allies near Senti'num, in Um'bria, and gave them a crushing defeat. This battle had much to do with making Rome master of Italy, and one writer calls it one of the "Decisive Battles of the World."

Tarentum and the Greeks.—While these Roman wars were going on Alexander the Great was winning his famous victories and founding the Macedonian Empire, and Rome was soon to feel the hand of Greece and face the Macedonian phalanx. In the south of Italy was the city of Tarentum, one of the old Greek colonies. The people of Tarentum were proud and haughty, and they sank some Roman vessels and insulted an envoy from Rome. The senate at once declared war against this city, and Tarentum, not being strong enough to face the Roman power, asked for help from the mother country. Pyr'rhus, King of Epi'rus, came to their aid with twenty-five thousand men and twenty war-elephants. He was a cousin of Alexander the Great and one of the best generals of Greece, and he had the fancy of founding an empire in the west as Alexander had done in the east.

Pyrrhus and the Romans.—Pyrrhus looked on the Romans as rude barbarians, and thought he would soon put them down, but when he met their army and saw how skilfully it was drawn up, he said, "In war, at least, these people are not barbarians." But the Romans had never faced the Macedonian phalanx, with its hedge of spears, and when the huge "gray oxen," as the Romans called the elephants, came rushing down on them, they broke and fled. Pyrrhus had won the victory, but it was a costly one, for many of his best troops and some of his ablest officers had fallen. When he looked on the dead Romans, and saw that

their wounds were all in front, he remarked: "If I had soldiers like these I could easily conquer the world."

Peace is refused.—Pyrrhus advanced within eighteen miles of Rome, and here offered his foes a treaty of peace;



ROMAN GENERAL AND STANDARD-BEARERS.

but they said they would not make peace while he was on Italian soil. "Rome," they said, "shall never treat with a victorious enemy." So the war went on, and the next year the Romans were defeated again, though once more Pyrrhus lost heavily.

Pyrrhus leaves Italy.—After that Pyrrhus crossed over to Sicily to help the Greeks there in their struggle against the armies of Carthage. After staying there for two years he returned to Tarentum. The Romans were ready for him, and another desperate battle was fought, at Beneven'tum, in Sam'nium. The Romans no longer feared the elephants, as

they had done at first. They met them with fire-brands, which drove these huge beasts back in terror on the Grecian lines. The Romans followed with their swords, and Pyrrhus met with a terrible defeat, nearly all his army being destroyed. With that the hope of Pyrrhus to found an empire in the west came to an end, and he went back in sorrow to Greece with the few men he had left. Soon after he had gone (272 B.C.) Tarentum surrendered to the Romans. While all this was going on the other Greek colonies were conquered and the peoples of the centre and north of Italy submitted to the Romans, so that Rome became mistress of all Italy south of the country held by the Gauls.

The Roman Military Genius.—The Romans, as you may see, had great military genius. It was not only that they were brave and daring, for there were many others who were quite as brave, but that they never gave up, never yielded to defeat, but kept on fighting till they wore out their antagonists. You will see more of this as you read on. And apart from their greatness on the battle-field, they were also a people of great practical good sense. They knew how to bind their conquests together.

The Organization of Italy.—Rome did not deprive the conquered states and cities of their self-government, but she kept the balance of power by retaining three rights for herself,—the right of making war or peace, the right of receiving ambassadors, and the right of coining money. The Italians could have their old laws and local customs, but they could not take part in the politics of the republic. That was confined to the citizens of Rome, who were made up of the people of the city, the colonists who had gone from Rome to other parts of Italy, and such persons as had been made citizens for some important service. Only these had

the privilege of going to Rome and voting in the assembly of the people.

Engineering Works.—The wonderful system of military roads was also begun at this time. The first of these was the paved road called the Ap'pian Way, after Ap'pius Clau'dius, who built it in 312 B.C. Other roads followed, extending to every part of Italy, and binding the whole country to Rome as its ruling centre. Another important work was that of the great aqueducts, begun about this time, and stretching far over hill and dale. The remains of these structures still meet the eyes of travellers who approach the "Eternal City."

CHAPTER III

THE PUNIC WARS

Rome and Carthage.—Rome had brought Italy under her feet, and had bound it to herself by a wise system of laws. But she was too ambitious to stop here, and began to look abroad for new foes. She found a rival to her greatness on the coast of Africa in the large and rich city of Car'thage. You may remember reading that the Phœnicians, in their great days of commerce, founded many trading colonies along the Mediterranean. There were more than three hundred of these, and Carthage was much the greatest of them all.

The Growth of Carthage.—Founded about a hundred years before Rome, Carthage had grown to be wealthy and powerful. Its ships traded with a hundred ports, and it was mistress of all the northern coast of Africa and of many islands in the Mediterranean. It held the larger part of Sicily and the south of Spain. With its war-galleys sweeping in every direction over the sea, it could well claim that the Mediterranean was a Carthaginian lake, in which no one dared wash his hands without its permission.

The War in Sicily.—Carthage was the great rival which Rome was determined to attack. Only a few miles of sea flowed between Italy and Sicily, and in the year 264 B.C. the Romans found an excuse for invading this island. It was held partly by Carthage and partly by the famous Greek city of Syracuse. The Syracusans and the Carthaginians had long been fighting each other, but when they saw these

unwelcome strangers coming they joined hands and tried to drive them back to Italy. Instead of doing so, they were themselves completely defeated, and the Romans soon had possession of much of the island. The King of Syracuse now deserted Carthage and joined Rome, and the Carthaginian armies met with severe disasters.

The Fleet of Carthage.—Carthage had one advantage, it had its great war-fleet and was mistress of the seas. Rome had no ships. But the senate soon saw that the only way to deal successfully with Carthage was to meet it on the water as well as on the land, and it gave orders for the building of a fleet.

Rome's First Fleet.—The Romans had plenty of energy, but all their career had been on land, and they knew noth-



A Roman Bireme.
(Bas-relief at Villa Albani.)

ing about ships. But they were practical people, and set themselves to learn. A war-galley of Carthage was wrecked on the shores of Italy and this was used as a model. In the wonderfully short space of sixty days, as we are told, a forest was cut down and worked into ship timber and a fleet of a hundred and twenty war-galleys was built. This was in the year 260 B.C.

A Naval Victory.—The new fleet quickly met a Carthaginian fleet near My'læ, in northern Sicily, and a fierce

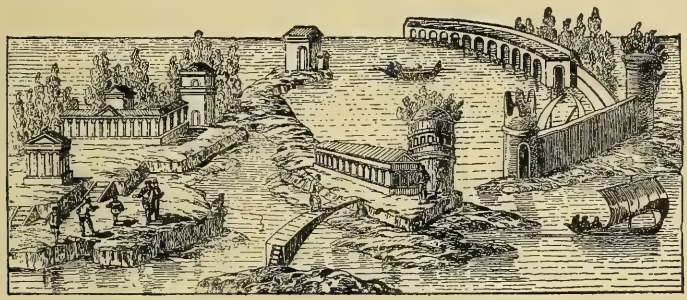
battle began. The Romans did not understand naval fighting and wanted to meet their foes hand to hand, so they had built a drawbridge on each of their vessels. As soon as they came near enough to a Carthaginian ship they let this bridge fall, and the soldiers rushed across it to the deck of their enemies sword in hand. In this way they won a complete victory. When the news of what had been done reached Rome the people were wild with joy, for they felt that they might come to rule the sea as well as the land.

Two Great Ocean Disasters.—So proud were the Romans of their ships that they decided to carry the war into Africa, so a large fleet was sent across the sea and an army landed under the consul Reg'ulus. But this expedition proved a sad failure. The army met with a terrible defeat and Regulus was taken prisoner. A fleet was sent over to bring back what was left of the army, but it was struck by a frightful storm off the coast of Sicily and a hundred thousand men were swallowed up by the angry waves. That was a terrible loss to the Romans, but they at once built another fleet which was sent to Africa. This, too, was hurled on the shore by a great storm, and the Romans began to think that the fates were against them and that Neptune, the sea god, was their enemy.

The Story of Regulus.—The war still went on in Sicily, and in the year 251 B.C. the Carthaginians, who had just lost a great battle, sent ambassadors to Rome to ask for peace. With them came Regulus, who for five years had been a prisoner in Carthage. He promised to return if the embassy should fail, and the Carthaginians were sure that he would ask the senate to make peace. But, on the contrary, he raised his voice for war, and told the senate that Carthage was in a weak state. Then he kept his word and went

back, in spite of the tears of his wife and the entreaties of his friends, though he knew that he would be put to a cruel death. There is much tradition in this, and the story of how Regulus was put in a barrel driven full of spikes and left there to die is probably all false.

Roman Losses at Sea.—The war went on for ten years longer, though the Romans lost two more fleets, one in battle and one in storm. They had now lost in all fourteen hundred vessels, half of which were great war-galleys, and



A Roman Harbor.

others were filled with grain for the army; and it looked, indeed, as if Neptune did not intend that Rome should lord it over the seas. But the Romans never gave up, and after a few years another fleet was built and set afloat. This time it won an important naval victory.

A Costly Peace.—Carthage now asked again for peace, and a treaty was made in which she agreed to pay a large sum of money, to give up all claim to the island of Sicily, and to surrender all her prisoners. Thus, in 241 B.C., ended the first Punic war,—as the war with Carthage was called,—after it had gone on for twenty-four years.

The Conquest of the Gauls.—Rome soon found work to do at home. In the north of Italy were the Gauls, who had not yet been conquered. When they learned that a Roman army was marching northward along the great military road, the Flamin'ian Way, they knew what it meant, and they quickly were in arms and moving to the south. This filled the Roman people with a panic of fear. They could not forget what had happened when these terrible Gauls came before. But this time the Roman armies held their own against them and defeated them with such slaughter that in three years all their country was conquered and the whole of Italy now belonged to Rome.

Hamilcar and His Son.—The course of history now takes us back to Carthage. The people of that great city were very bitter against the Romans, who they felt had treated them harshly and unjustly in the terms of peace, and they were eager for revenge. They had a good general in Hamil'car Bar'ca, who had shown himself very able near the end of the late war. Hamilcar thought that the best manner to get at Rome was by way of Spain, in which Carthage held some coast provinces. When he crossed to Spain in 235 B.C. he took with him his son Han'nibal, then only nine years old. Bringing the boy to an altar, he made him swear eternal hatred to Rome. Hannibal kept his oath well, as you shall see.

The War in Spain.—For nine years Hamilcar was occupied in conquering and organizing the tribes of Spain. Then he was killed in battle, and Has'drubal, his son-in-law, took his place. He, too, proved a skilful general, and helped to spread the dominion of Carthage in Spain. Hasdrubal was at length killed by an assassin, and Hannibal was called upon by the army to be their leader. He was now twenty-six years old.

Hannibal as a General.—Hannibal was one of the greatest generals the world has ever known. For fifteen years he kept the Romans in terror. If he had been well supported by his country he might have destroyed the power of Rome. His story begins in Spain, where he rapidly extended the dominion of Carthage. Then he attacked Sagun'tum, a Greek city on the coast. He knew that this would bring on war with Rome, for the Greek cities had put themselves under Roman protection, but he went on all the same and conquered the city. The result was what Hannibal had intended. War was declared by Rome.

The Second Punic War.—The second Punic war came in the year 218 B.C. The Romans began it by sending one army to Africa and another to Spain. But startling news came to them which caused those armies to be hastily brought back. Hannibal had crossed the Pyrenees Mountains and was marching on Italy.

Hannibal crosses the Alps.—Hannibal now performed one of the most famous military exploits in all history, he led his army across the mighty mountain-range of the Alps. Up and up the steep slopes of these lofty hills the men toiled, by narrow and difficult paths, some of which they had to cut wider for the passage of the elephants they brought. As they went on the wild mountain tribes hurled stones down on them from the higher peaks. At length they reached the summit, where the snows had begun to fall. But the weary men looked down on the rich plains of Italy, and their troubles were forgotten.

"Yonder lies Rome."—"This is the Acropolis of Italy; yonder lies Rome," said Hannibal, and new spirit came into his men. Half their work was still before them, for the descent was as toilsome as the ascent, but at length they stood

on the Italian plains. Half their number had perished in the task, and only twenty-six thousand men were left, but these few men were a host with Hannibal at their head.

Hannibal's Rapid Victories.—Soon a Roman army was met and defeated. A few days later a second army met the same fate. The Gauls, who waited to see what Hannibal would do, now joined him in numbers, and the next year, at Lake Trasime'nus, he almost destroyed a Roman army.

The Great Victory of Cannæ.—We cannot tell all that Hannibal did in Italy. It is far too long a story. The Romans appointed a general named Fa'bius, who was famous for his caution. He would not fight, but hung about Hannibal's army and tried to do it all the harm he could and to tire it out. In 216 B.C. Rome raised the largest army it had ever had, eighty thousand strong. Hannibal had not more than half that number. The Romans now felt sure of victory, but the two armies met at Can'næ, in Apu'lia, and the Romans suffered the most terrible defeat in their history. Hannibal skilfully surrounded them with his army, and his cavalry cut them down for hours. From fifty thousand to seventy thousand are said to have been killed, a few thousands were captured, and a mere handful escaped. It was a frightful slaughter. When Hannibal's messenger brought the news to Carthage he proved his words by pouring down in the senate house nearly a peck of gold rings which had been taken from the fingers of Roman knights.

Hannibal's Plan.—Hannibal now could easily have taken Rome, but he had no fancy for getting behind walls. The people of Italy still kept faithful to Rome, and he did not care to be besieged. So he kept in the open country, winning battles whenever he could bring the Romans to fight, and seeking to wear out their strength and get the Italian

cities to join his cause. It was in this that he met his great failure. Rome had bound all Italy closely to her by her wise system of laws, and nearly all the states remained friendly through these years of peril and misfortune.

The Energy of the Romans.—The Romans, as we have said, never gave up. Hannibal offered them peace after Cannæ, but they would not even let his envoy enter the city. His brother came from Spain with an army to help him, but he was met and defeated by the Romans and his gory head



Scipio addressing his Troops.

was flung into Hannibal's camp. The city of Capua, which had opened its gates to Hannibal, was taken by the Romans and cruelly punished; and the great city of Syracuse, which formed an alliance with Carthage, was besieged for three years, and then so completely plundered that it never recovered from the blow.

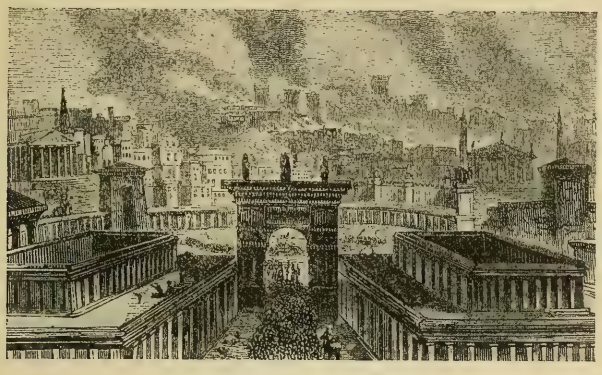
The Fatal Field of Zama.—At length the Roman general Scipio, one of the most famous of the Roman leaders, took an army to Africa, and so frightened the Carthaginians by his victories that they sent for Hannibal to come home. He met Scipio at Zama, in Africa, and was defeated in the only battle he ever lost. His veterans from Italy were nearly all destroyed.

A Ruinous Peace for Carthage.—Carthage was now in a helpless state and asked for peace, but it was a bitter peace she obtained. She had to give up all her possessions in Spain and the islands of the Mediterranean, yield all her ships of war but ten, and pay a large sum of money. Five hundred of her great war-galleys were towed out of the harbor and burned before the eyes of the citizens. Hannibal had made a great name, but he had a sad fate. He fled for safety to Asia, but the Romans pursued him mercilessly. Finally, that he might not fall into the hands of his cruel foes, he took poison, which he carried with him in the hollow of a ring. His death was like that of the great Demosthenes.

"Carthage must be destroyed."—The end of the story of Carthage did not come until fifty years later, but must here be told. There was a party in Rome determined on the destruction of Carthage, and Cato, the censor, closed every speech before the Senate, no matter what it was about, with the words, *Delenda est Carthago*, "Carthage must be destroyed."

A Terrible Order.—In 149 B.C. an army was sent to Carthage. The people offered to do everything that Rome could ask. They even gave up all the arms in the city. But this did not satisfy Rome, and the order was given that Carthage must be destroyed, and that its people might build a new city ten miles from the coast.

The Fate of a Great City.—This cruel order drove the people to desperation. They closed their gates, and all the men, rich and poor, set to making new arms. The women even cut off their long hair to make bow-strings for the archers. When the Roman army advanced to take the city, they found its walls manned by men with arms in their



THE BURNING OF CARTHAGE.

hands. The desperate people of Carthage made a good fight. It took the Romans four years to capture the city. When at last it was taken by storm in 146 B.C. only fifty thousand remained out of its seven hundred thousand people. The great and splendid city was set on fire and burned for seventeen days. Then the smoking walls were levelled with the ground and a plough was driven over the site. Thus it was that the Romans dealt with a helpless enemy. It may be seen from this what a cruel and hard-hearted people they were.

CHAPTER IV

THE GROWTH OF THE ROMAN DOMINION

The Conquests of Rome.—You have now read how the people of Rome after some centuries of warfare had conquered all Italy, and how they had taken from Carthage all its islands in the Mediterranean Sea, and finally had utterly destroyed that rich and flourishing old city, and gained great possessions in Africa. All this only made the Romans eager for new wars and conquests, and they looked abroad in the world to see where else they should send their armies.

Between the Punic Wars.—We have said that fifty years passed between the second and third Punic wars. You must not think that Rome was at peace during that half-century. At the close of the first Punic war she had conquered the Gauls of Northern Italy; after the second she sent her armies into Macedonia and Greece. The mighty empire of Alexander the Great had long been broken up into separate kingdoms, and Macedonia was not the powerful state it once had been.

War with Macedonia.—The Senate of Rome soon found an excuse for war against Philip, King of Macedonia, and in the year 198 B.C. an army was sent to that country under a general named Flamin'ius. This shrewd leader began by proclaiming all Greece to be independent, and in that way got most of the Greeks on his side. The next year he met Philip and his army at a place called Cynosceph'alæ and totally defeated him. After this victory all the old power of Macedonia was gone, though Philip was left on his throne.

Greece got back her freedom again, but she was free only at the will of Rome.

Antiochus invades Europe.—In the history of Alexander's empire you have been told of Anti'ochus the Great, the successor of Seleucus and king of all southern Asia. This famous monarch was the next to come into conflict with the Romans. He had sent his armies into Europe and had given an asylum to Hannibal, the great Carthaginian, and that was enough for Rome.

The Repulse of Antiochus.—War was declared against the proud Antiochus, who had defied Rome and invaded Greece. The Greeks who joined him were defeated at the famous pass of Thermopylæ. His fleet was scattered to the winds, and the next year (190 B.C.) a great battle was fought at Magne'sia, in Asia Minor, in which the Romans won a complete victory. This gave them possession of a large part of Asia Minor, where they set up a new kingdom, under a king chosen by themselves.

Perseus defeated.—Some time after this King Philip of Macedonia died and his son Perseus (Per'suse) came to the throne. The young monarch was proud and brave, and tried to free his kingdom from the power of Rome, but after three years' fighting he was utterly beaten at the battle of Pyd'na in 168 B.C. He was taken to Rome as a captive, and Macedonia was made a part of the Roman dominions.

The Destruction of Corinth.—Greece kept its freedom only about twenty years longer. By that time the Romans became so unjust and tyrannical that the Greek confederacy called the Achæan League rebelled. The war ended in the year 146 B.C., in the complete destruction of the great and beautiful city of Corinth. This rich old city was full of splendid works of art, but the Romans, who were still bar-

barians as compared with the Greeks, knew little of their value, and many of them were sold for a trifle at public auction. Rome first learned what true art was when great numbers of these beautiful statues and pictures and other art-works were brought to Italy. As for Greece, its freedom was at an end, and it was added to the Roman empire. We may see how ruthless the Romans were at that time when we consider that in a single year the two great and famous cities, Corinth and Carthage, were utterly ruined and destroyed by them.

The Conflict in Spain. For the next wars of Rome we must go to Spain. Here the soldiers of Carthage had made



Vessels laden with Troops and Plunder.

great conquests, but the people were not willing to submit to Rome, and they bravely defended their liberty for many years. There was one noble chief, Viria'tus, leader of the Lusita'nians, who was not afraid to meet the best generals of Rome, and for six years he kept the field against them. With him the Romans played a base part, for they had him murdered by an assassin. After this deed of dishonor they subdued his people.

The Siege and Ruin of Numantia. Here again we have to tell how cruel the Romans could be. Another tribe in the north of Spain held out against the power of Rome. Scip'io Æmilia'nus—not the great Scipio who had defeated Hannibal in Africa, but another famous general of the family—was sent against them, but it took several years to bring the war to an end. During the war a city named Numan'tia was besieged, and the siege was one of the most dreadful of which we read anywhere in history. For eighteen months the people held out, until they were forced to eat the very bodies of the dead. When at last they had to surrender, some of them set fire to their houses and died with their wives and children in the flames, so that very few were left for the Romans. These were sold into slavery, and the city was destroyed as Corinth and Carthage had been. This took place in 133 B.C.

The Crimes of Jugurtha.—So many wars followed that we must run over them rapidly. In Africa was a prince named Jugur'tha, who seized the throne of Numid'ia and committed many crimes. Complaints against him were sent to Rome, but he bribed the members of the senate with his gold and went on with his crimes. You may see from this that even the senate had grown corrupt as Rome grew rich and powerful.

Marius conquers Jugurtha.—At length Jugurtha did so many wicked deeds that Rome was forced to interfere. But this time he bribed the generals sent against him and thus escaped defeat. The man who finally overcame him was Cai'us Ma'rius, the son of a poor day laborer, but a man of splendid military powers. He conquered Jugurtha and brought him to Rome, where he was carried in triumph through the streets, and then thrust into a dark dungeon,

where he was left to die of cold and hunger. He had done so many cruel deeds that we cannot pity him much.

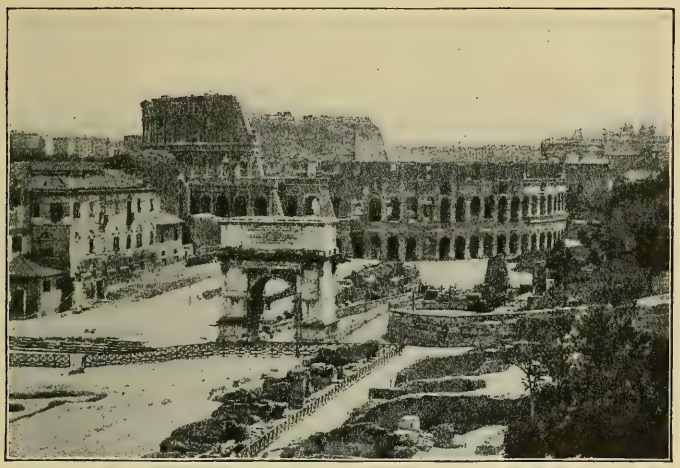
The Teutons and Cimbri.—Soon after this there was greater work still for Marius to do, for Rome passed through a frightful peril, like that which it met when the Gauls came upon it. Two great hordes of barbarians, the Teu'tons and the Cim'bri, came from the forests of Germany and rushed like a torrent upon the south. Four Roman armies were defeated by them, and matters were looking very dark for Rome, when Marius was put in command.

"The Saviour of Rome."—Marius led his army across the Alps into Gaul (now France) and met the wild host of the Teutons on the river Rhone (102 B.C.). When he had done with them there were few left. It is said that two hundred thousand of them were slain. Then he hastened back to Italy and met the Cimbri, whom he defeated as completely, more than one hundred thousand being killed and sixty thousand taken prisoners. These the Romans sold as slaves, and they hailed Marius as the "saviour of his country."

Mithridates against Rome.—Soon after this time a great war took place in Asia, with Mithrida'tes, king of Pontus, a proud and powerful monarch. This king, who was a very learned and able man, determined to drive the Romans out of Asia Minor and give freedom to Greece, and he ordered that all the Italians in Asia Minor should be put to death. In a single night from eighty thousand to one hundred and fifty thousand of them were killed.

The Triumph of the Romans.—Sul'la, a young noble who had fought under Marius, was sent to conduct the war against Mithridates, and defeated him in several battles, forcing him in 84 B.C. to accept harsh terms of peace. But

war broke out again in 74 B.C. and Lucul'lus, a Roman consul, three times severely defeated the enemy. One time he had only twelve thousand men against an army of two hundred thousand, of whom fifty thousand were cavalry. Finally Pom'pey, afterwards known as Pompey the Great, drove Mithridates from his throne and his country, and Rome's greatest enemy killed himself in despair (63 B.C.). When the Romans heard of his death they were as glad as if the



THE COLISEUM AND THE ARCH OF TITUS.

news of a great victory had reached them. Pompey made a Roman province of Pontus, and he also conquered Syria and captured the famous old city of Jerusalem, the capital of the Hebrew kingdom. This made the land of Judea a part of the dominion of Rome.

The Effect on Rome.—Now let us rest awhile from all these dreadful stories of war and the slaughter of human beings and the ruin of cities and countries, and stop to look

at Rome itself and see what effect all this had upon the city on the Tiber.

Great Development of the City.—Rome was becoming the centre of the civilized world. Wealth was pouring into it from all quarters. The taxation of the provinces and the spoils of war brought great riches to the city, much of which was spent in public works. Great highways were built in Italy and the provinces, fine bridges were thrown across the Tiber, splendid public buildings arose, sewers were constructed, the streets were paved, new aqueducts were built, and in 159 B.C. a public *clep'sydra*, or water-clock, was set up in Rome. It was the first mechanical means of telling the passage of the hours the people of that city had ever known.

The Learned Men of Greece.—Strangers came to Rome in great numbers, many of them being learned men from Greece. There were Greek school-masters and philosophers, tragedians, flute-players, and scholars, and literary culture now first began to spread in Rome. The conquering city got some good writers of its own, like Plautus and Terence, the famous comedians, though the great age of Roman literature lay a century in the future.

Loss of Roman Virtue.—The Romans learned some good things and they learned many bad things. They became corrupt in manners and morals and fond of luxurious living, and the hardy old virtues were fast leaving them. Many of them mocked at religion. The stern, upright old Roman was passing away, and only a weak shadow of him remained. The political corruption became alarming. The citizen voters held all the power of the state, and they soon found that their votes would bring a price, so the great offices may be said to have been bought and sold.

The Provincial Governments.—The Romans knew how to bind their great realm together much better than the rulers of the earlier empires had done. They let the people of the provinces keep their old habits, religion, laws, etc.,



MAP OF ITALY, B C. 150.

and every city had its own local government. But they sent to every province a military governor with his staff of officials and his military force, and he looked out sharply for the interests of Rome. The people were taxed, but

they were not oppressed, and a vast population dwelt in content under the Roman rule.

The Slave System.—There were two things that threatened Roman power at home. One of these was the immense number of slaves which war and conquest had brought into Italy. At the time we are now speaking of it is said that there were twelve million slaves to three million freemen in Italy. They were numerous elsewhere. Sicily was full of them, where they were made to work like cattle on the great estates. They were so cheap that it paid better to work them to death than to take care of them. Some estates had as many as twenty thousand slaves, many of whom had been taken in war and were equal or superior in intellect and culture to their masters.

The Slave Outbreak in Sicily.—This slave system led to a great outbreak. In 134 B.C. the slaves of Sicily broke into rebellion, and for three years they defied the Roman power, defeating four armies that were sent against them. There were two hundred thousand of them in arms, and it was not till 132 B.C. that the revolt was put down.

Spartacus and the Servile War.—At a later time, in 72 B.C., a slave rebellion began in Italy. Spar'tacus, a slave gladiator, headed a party of slaves and took refuge in the crater of Mount Vesuvius, where hosts of slaves and outlaws joined him. His force grew to be one hundred thousand strong, and he defeated the Roman forces in several battles, so that the city itself was in danger. But at last his army was defeated and he was slain. Only then did the Romans breathe freely. You may see that Rome, great as it was, had its points of weakness.

A Friend of the Poor.—Another great evil was that the rich were taking possession of all the lands, in spite of the

old Roman laws, so that the people were being divided into two great classes, the rich and the poor. There was bitter opposition to this, and a rich young noble named Tibe'rius Grac'chus, who was elected tribune in 133 B.C., tried to help the poor by putting in force the old property law, which said that the land should be divided among the people.

The Murder of the Gracchi.—This made some of the rich so furious that they raised a tumult in which Gracchus and many of his friends were slain. Ten years later Cai'us Grac'chus, brother of Tiberius, also sought to help the people against the aristocrats, but he was attacked by his enemies and was killed with three thousand of his followers. Thus died the friends of the people, and thus began the frightful era of civil war and massacre.

The Social War.—In the year 90 B.C. there began a civil war called the Social War. The people of Italy said they had as much right to be Roman citizens as the people of the city. This right was denied by the Romans, and a tribune who said they had a just right to be made citizens was killed. At this the Italians took up arms to fight for their rights. They said they would break away from Rome, and they chose a new capital which they named Ital'ica. A war followed that lasted three years and was very fierce and bloody. In the end the old Romans, fearing that they might lose all, offered the right of the franchise to those who would lay down their arms. This ended a war that had cost the lives of three hundred thousand people and brought ruin to many cities and districts. But the Italians had gained what they fought for, since they were all made citizens of Rome. It was three centuries later before this right was given to all the free people of the empire.

CHAPTER V

THE ERA OF CIVIL WAR

The Army Supreme.—When the kings were driven from Rome, as you will remember, the city-state became a republic, or government of the people, and thus it stayed for more than four hundred years. But it was not to stay so much longer, for the army had grown to be the great power in Rome. It was no longer as in the early days, when every



MOUNTED ARCHER.
(From the Antonine Column.)

able man went as a soldier when war broke out, and hung up his sword and spear when it was over. The army was now made up of men to whom war was a trade, who remained in the army for years, and who often cared more for their general than they did for their country. So it was easy now for an ambitious army leader to seize the governing power, and this led to the fall of the republic.

The Contest of Marius and Sulla.—It was Marius, the "Saviour of his Country," who dealt it the first fatal blow. This old hero had now a rival in Sulla, an able soldier who had fought under him in the war with Jugurtha, and had come into great favor. When the war with Mithridates began both these men wanted to command. The senate gave the command to Sulla, but Marius got the assembly of the people to vote that he should have it. Sulla was general of an army in Italy, and when he heard of what had been done he marched upon Rome and entered the city with his legions. Marius had to flee for his life. This was the first time a Roman army had ever encamped within the walls of the city. It was far from being the last time.

Marius and the Slave.—Old Marius, who twenty years before was called the Saviour of his Country, was now a homeless fugitive, with a price set upon his head. He was captured on the coast and put in a dungeon, and a slave was sent into the prison to kill him. But when the man entered the dark cell where Marius lay the eyes of the old soldier seemed to flash fire from the darkness, and a fierce voice roared out, "Do you dare slay Caius Marius?" The frightened slave dropped his sword and fled.

Marius in the Ruins of Carthage.—Marius was now set free, and he took ship for Africa, landing at a point near Carthage. The Roman governor of that place sent him a message forbidding him to land, but the old general, who had won for Rome half its possessions in Africa, sent back the indignant answer, "Go, tell your master that you have seen Caius Marius, a homeless wanderer, sitting amidst the ruins of Carthage."

The Revenge of Marius.—Soon there was a turn in the tide of fortune. After Sulla sailed for Asia to fight with

Mithridates the friends of Marius rose in arms in Italy, and the fugitive came back. An army was ready for him, and he marched with it into Rome, where he began a dreadful slaughter of his enemies. For five days the massacre was kept up among the members of the aristocratic party, whose bleeding bodies were left lying in every street. If a citizen saluted Marius, and he did not return the salute, the victim was at once cut down. The consul Octa'vius was killed and his head set up in public, a new spectacle for Roman eyes. It was a terrible revenge, but Marius did not live long to enjoy his triumph, for wild drinking and dissipation quickly carried him away. He died soon after his return, in his seventy-first year (86 B.C.).

Sulla in Italy.—Rome had run with blood, but it was soon to run more freely still, for Sulla had been victorious in the war with Mithridates, and wrote that he would soon return to revenge himself on his own and his country's foes. He reached Italy in 83 B.C. The people's party met him in arms and a dreadful war followed, which lasted two years. The Samnites took arms against him, but he overcame all his foes and entered Rome as its master.

The Proscription by Sulla.—Now began a slaughter tenfold more dreadful than that of Marius. Sulla had taken six thousand Samnite prisoners, and he had all these put to death. Then he began the murder of his enemies. Every day long lists of the names of those to be killed were hung up on the rostrum, and they were hunted down and murdered. The only crime of many of them was that they had property which the friends of Sulla wanted. These lists of names was called the proscription. Among those proscribed was a boy of eighteen named Julius Cæsar. Sulla spared his life to please some of his friends, but he told them, "There is

in that boy many a Marius." He was right, as you will learn later on.

Sulla's Last Days.—The slaughter was frightful, thousands of the noble and wealthy being slain, and also tens of thousands of the poor who had sided with Marius. Sulla then had himself made perpetual dictator. But after two years, to everybody's surprise, he resigned this office and retired to private life. Here he gave himself up to a career of intemperance and debauchery which soon put an end to his life. It is said that the strife between Marius and Sulla caused the loss of one hundred and fifty thousand lives.

New Leaders appear.—Marius and Sulla were gone, but new names were rising in Rome and new changes were coming. There was Pom'pey, already known as a great general. There was Cras'sus, whose vast wealth gave him power. There was Cic'ero, an orator who was rising to world-wide fame. There was Cæ'sar, the youth who had escaped death at Sulla's hands, and who was to prove himself the greatest of all the Romans.

Pompey the Great.—Pompey had been named "Pompey the Great" by Sulla, whose enemies he conquered in Sicily and Africa. Afterwards he went to Spain, where he fought for ten years against Serto'rius, a leader in the party of Marius. He won only after the brave Sertorius was murdered. The next year (71 B.C.) he and Crassus put down the slave rebellion under Spartacus.

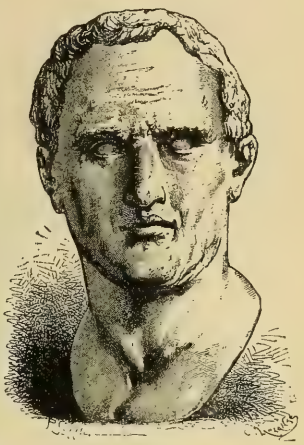
The Mediterranean Pirates.—At that time the Mediterranean Sea was such a nest of pirates that there was no longer any safety for commerce. These freebooters had a sort of government of their own, and they held a great many strongholds. They plundered not only on the open

seas, but landed on the coasts, where they robbed villas and farms, and even captured cities, whose people they sold as slaves. Finally they began to seize the grain-ships from Sicily and Africa, and Rome was in danger of starvation. It was time to act.

Pompey's Victories.—Pompey was chosen to deal with the pirates. He was made dictator for three years over the sea and its coasts for fifty miles inland, and he set out on the track of the pirates with five hundred ships and one hundred thousand men. His work was wonderfully swift. In less than a hundred days he swept the Mediterranean clear of these rovers, captured their strongholds, and formed colonies in Greece and Asia Minor out of twenty thousand of them whom he had taken prisoners. The same year (66 B.C.) he took command of the Mithridatic war and brought that to a successful end. Then he came home and had the most splendid triumph Rome had ever seen. More than three hundred princes walked as captives before his triumphant chariot, and his banners stated that he had conquered twenty-one kings and countries, with more than twelve million people.

The Conspiracy of Catiline.—The next important event in Roman history was the conspiracy of Cat'iline. Catiline was a profligate young noble, who had wasted his estate in riotous living and now formed a plot with others of his kind to murder the consuls and burn and plunder the city. By good fortune the dangerous plot was discovered by Cicero, the famous orator. Cicero appeared in the senate, and denounced Catiline and his associates with such burning eloquence that the plotter was forced to flee. His fellows in the city tried to carry out his plot, but Cicero was on their track, and had them seized and put to death. Catiline

gathered a force, and a desperate battle was fought, in which he and many of his followers were killed. Cicero was now hailed as the "Saviour of his Country."



CICERO.

The First Triumvirate.—We have now to speak of one of the most famous events in the history of Rome,—the forming of what is known as the "First Trium'virate." This word means an association of three men, and the three men were Pompey, Cæsar, and Crassus, who joined together to control affairs in Rome.

Pompey, Crassus, and Cæsar.—Pompey's strength lay in his great fame as a soldier. Crassus was immensely wealthy, and money gave him power. Cæsar was a born statesman and a fine orator, and had gained great influence over the people. He spent money so freely to win popular favor that his debts are said to have been more than a million dollars. And he had genius as a soldier, too, as he had shown by a successful campaign in Spain. Such were the three men who now divided between them the control of the Roman world.

Cæsar's Province of Gaul.—Cæsar was elected consul in 59 B.C. When his year in office was up he was made pro-consul, or governor, of the province of Gaul. This was a double province. There was Cisalpine Gaul, south of the Alps, from which had come Brennus and his horde. In Transalpine Gaul, beyond the Alps, Rome had only a small

foothold. It was a land of wild and bold barbarians, and Cæsar had the ambition to conquer it and add it to Rome. He wanted to show the people that he was as great a soldier as Pompey.

The Wars in Gaul.—The wars of Cæsar in Gaul lasted eight years, from 58 to 50 B.C. By the end of that time he



JULIUS CÆSAR AS A GENERAL.

had subdued three hundred tribes, captured eight hundred cities, and slain one million people, while he had taken as many more prisoners. He had also crossed the Rhine and attacked the Germans in their native forests. And he had crossed the channel to Britain and fought with the fierce natives of that island. As for Gaul, it was made a fixed part

of the Roman realm, and in time it became a flourishing seat of civilization.

Crassus is killed.—While Cæsar was fighting in Gaul, Crassus had become proconsul, or governor, of Syria. He wanted to act the soldier, too. West of his province were the Par'thians, an Eastern race who had overrun much of Alexander's old empire. Crassus went to war with these people and was defeated and slain. Thus the weak member of the Triumvirate was removed. His great passion had been love of money, and the general of the Parthians took his skull and filled it with melted gold, that he might have all the wealth his head could hold.

Pompey amuses the People.—Pompey was now growing very jealous of the great reputation of Cæsar. Spain was his province, and he should have been there with the army, but he remained in Rome, trying to win favor with the people. He built an immense theatre with forty thousand seats, he fed the poor at public tables, and gave magnificent games and great fights of gladiators. When Cæsar learned what was going on he sent money to Rome to be used for the same purposes, and also increased the pay of his soldiers and gave many favors to the Gauls, to win them to his side.

The Senate's Decrees.—Pompey now took a bolder step. He got the senate, which was filled with his friends, to pass a decree that Cæsar should give up the command of his army. Cæsar agreed to do so if Pompey would do the same. This Pompey did not do, and the senate decreed that Cæsar must obey its orders by a certain day or he would be declared an outlaw.

Cæsar crosses the Rubicon.—Such a decree as that, against a man like Julius Cæsar, could have but one end.

He at once ordered his legions to march into Italy. A little river called the Ru'bicon formed the southern border of his province. "The die is cast," he said, as he stood on the banks of this stream with a small body of veterans. Into the water he plunged and waded across, and then marched rapidly southward without waiting for the legions from Gaul. As he went the cities all opened their gates to him and the soldiers everywhere joined him. Pompey and the senate saw that Rome was lost, and they fled in haste. Within sixty days Cæsar was master of all Italy.



CATO ABOUT TO COMMIT SUICIDE.

The Field of Pharsalia.—The next year (48 B.C.) the two great rivals met in battle on the plain of Pharsa'lia, in northern Greece. Here took place one of those great battles that control the history of nations. Cæsar had much the smaller army, but he was much the greater general, and he won a complete victory. Pompey fled in despair to Egypt, but he

was killed by the Egyptians as he was about to land, and his head was sent to Cæsar. Thus ended the First Triumvirate.

Cæsar's Last Conquest.—Cæsar lived only four years after the fall of Pompey, but these were busy years. He had wars in Egypt, Asia, Africa, and Spain, in all of which he was successful. In Asia he put down the son of the great Mithridates so quickly, that his report to the senate was in three words,—*veni*, *vidi*, *vici*, "I came, I saw, I conquered." Cato, the famous philosopher and patriot, who had joined the cause of Pompey and fought against Cæsar in Africa, committed suicide, not being willing to live after the republic had fallen.

A Great Statesman.—Reaching home, Cæsar amused the Romans with a magnificent triumph and splendid shows. He also showed that he was a great statesman as well as soldier. To prove that he did not like the old policy of Rome he had the two cities of Carthage and Corinth rebuilt. He also founded numerous colonies in the provinces, settling them with large numbers of the poorer people of the capital city. He took other wise steps to blend the different peoples into one nationality, and he greatly extended the privilege of citizenship, for he wanted to combine all the many nations conquered by Rome into one great people.

The Crown refused.—Cæsar had all the power of a king, though he did not claim the title. He may have wanted it, but he was too wise to take it. Mark Antony, the consul, one of his strong supporters, offered him a crown in public, but he refused it. But for all that he had many enemies, some of them true patriots, who felt that he had destroyed the republic, while others had personal reasons for hating him.

The Assassination of Cæsar.—A plot to take Cæsar's life was formed by a party of his enemies, all of them

nobles, their leaders being named Bru'tus and Cas'sius. Brutus was Cæsar's most trusted friend, but he was a patriot who thought he must kill him to save Rome. At a meeting of the senate held on the Ides of March (March 15, 44 B.C.) these conspirators surrounded Cæsar in the senate chamber and attacked him with their daggers. For a time he defended himself, but when he saw Brutus among them, he cried out, reproachfully, "*Et tu Brute!*" ("Thou, too, Brutus!") and ceased to struggle. He fell dead at the foot of Pompey's statue, pierced with twenty-three wounds.

Cæsar's Greatness.—Thus died the greatest man Rome ever knew, a man great as soldier, statesman, and party leader, and also an able orator, a learned scholar, and a skilled author. He wrote a history of his campaigns in Gaul, which is a model of that kind of writing. In almost every way he ranked with the world's greatest men. He was cruel in his wars, but all the Romans were that.

A Family of Patriots.—It was a man named Brutus in the old days who led the rebellion that drove King Tarquin from Rome. The Brutus who helped to kill Cæsar was of the same family of patriots. But it was too late now to save the liberty of Rome, and his fatal deed led to nothing more than bloodshed, for men appeared to take revenge on the murderers of Cæsar and to seize the power which he had held.

Antony and Octavius.—One of these men was Mark An'tony, the consul, who made a funeral oration over Cæsar's dead body, in which he stirred up the people against the plotters to such an extent that Brutus and Cassius had to hasten from the city to save their lives. Cæsar had a nephew, named Caius Octa'vius, whom he adopted as his son and made his heir. Octavius was a youth of nineteen, but


ROMAN EMPIRE
Time of Julius Cæsar
1st Punic War 264 B.C.
Acquired, end 1st Punic War 238 B.C
" " 2nd " " 201 "
133 years B.C.
At death of Cæsar 44 A.D.
SCALE OF MILES
100 50 0 100 200 300
C.S.H. & CO., N.Y.
Longitude East from Ferro
OCEANUS ATLANTICUS
MARE INTERNUM
GERMANIA
SARMATIA
GALLIA
HISPANIA
ITALIA
ASIA
REGNUM PARTHORUM
GÆTULIA
Hibernia
BRITANNIA
Belgica
Aquitania
Narbonensis
Lusitania
Baetica
Corsica
Sardinia
Sicilia
Noricum
Dacia
Macedonia
Thracia
Moesia Superior
Moesia
Pannonia
Regnum Bospori
Pontus Euxinus
Bithynia
Galatia
Cappadocia
Cilicia
Syria
Cyprus
Crete
Arabia
Ægyptus
Cyrenaica
Marmarica
Numidia
Mauretania Tingitana
Mauretania Cæsariensis
Proconsularis
Britannicus
Germanicus
Caucasus Mons
Colchis
Iberia
Albania
Armenia
Mesopotamia
Babylonia
Assyria
Arabia
Palæstina
Judæa
Ægyptus
Rubrum Mare
Mare Mediterraneum
Mare Cantabricum
Mare Germanicum
Mare Tyrrhenum
Mare Ionium
Mare Ægæum
Mare Caspium
Euxinus Pontus
Sinus Arabicus
Sinus Persicus
Rhenus
Danubius
Euphrates
Tigris
Nilus
Britannia
Londinium
Lugdunum
Colonia Agrippina
Augusta Vindelicum
Augusta Taurinorum
Roma
Massilia
Tarraco
Corduba
Gades
Carthago
Carthago Nova
Utica
Hippo Regius
Thapsus
Leptis maior
Syrtis Minor
Sabrata
Tripolis
Berenice
Syrtis Maior
Alexandria
Memphis
Petra
Gaza
Cæsarea
Damascus
Tyrus
Sidon
Ptolemais
Antiochia
Seleucia
Laodicea
Hierosolyma
Jericho
Jordanes
Mare Mortuum
Lacus Asphaltites
Lacus Maeotis
Tanais
Olbia
Chersonesus
Panticapæum
Phanagoria
Theodosia
Dioscurias
Phasis
Sacasene
Artaxata
Trapezus
Amisus
Sinope
Amastris
Nicomedia
Nicæa
Chalcedon
Byzantium
Ancyra
Tarsus
Iconium
Cæsarea
Comana
Nicopolis
Dyrrhachium
Thessalonica
Philippi
Apollonia
Dardania
Salonæ
Aquileia
Ravenna
Ariminum
Ancona
Capua
Neapolis
Tarentum
Brundisium
Croton
Syracusæ
Messana
Panormus
Lilybæum
Corsica
Sardinia
Sicilia
Creta
Cyprus
Rhodus
Lesbos
Chios
Samos
Ephesus
Miletus
Halicarnassus
Smyrna
Pergamum
Troja
Sestos
Abydos
Lampsacus
Cyzicus
Nicæa
Prusa
Heraclea Pontica
Amisus
Trapezus
Phasis
Dioscurias
Olbia
Tanais
Lacus Maeotis
Palus Mæotis
Bosporus Cimmerius
Bosporus Thracius
Hellespontus
Propontis
Pontus Euxinus
Oceanus Atlanticus
Cassiterides Ins.
Hibernia
Britannia
Germania
Sarmatia
Dacia
Thracia
Macedonia
Asia
Africa
Gætulia
Numidia
Arabia
Ægyptus
Parthia
Mesopotamia
Armenia
Colchis
Iberia
Albania
Sarmatia Asiatica
Sarmatia Europæa
Scythia
Hyrcania
Media
Persia
Susiana
Babylonia
Assyria
Arabia Deserta
Arabia Petræa
Arabia Felix
Palæstina
Judæa
Idumæa
Samaria
Galilæa
Phœnicia
Cœle-Syria
Commagene
Cappadocia
Galatia
Bithynia
Paphlagonia
Pontus
Lycaonia
Pisidia
Pamphylia
Lycia
Caria
Lydia
Phrygia
Mysia
Troas
Æolis
Ionia
Doris
Achaia
Epirus
Illyricum
Pannonia
Noricum
Rætia
Vindelicia
Helvetia
Gallia Belgica
Gallia Lugdunensis
Gallia Aquitania
Gallia Narbonensis
Hispania Tarraconensis
Hispania Lusitania
Hispania Baetica
Britannia
Hibernia
Caledonia
Germania Magna
Germania Inferior
Germania Superior
Sarmatia Europæa
Sarmatia Asiatica
Scythia
Hyrcania
Media
Persia
Susiana
Babylonia
Assyria
Arabia Deserta
Arabia Petræa
Arabia Felix
Palæstina
Judæa
Idumæa
Samaria
Galilæa
Phœnicia
Cœle-Syria
Commagene
Cappadocia
Galatia
Bithynia
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Gallia Aquitania
Gallia Narbonensis
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Hispania Baetica
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Germania Inferior
Germania Superior
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Sarmatia Asiatica
Scythia
Hyrcania
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Susiana
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Assyria
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Arabia Petræa
Arabia Felix
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Gallia Aquitania
Gallia Narbonensis
Hispania Tarraconensis
Hispania Lusitania
Hispania Baetica
Britannia
Hibernia
Caledonia
Germania Magna
Germania Inferior
Germania Superior

many of the old soldiers looked on him as their leader and he put himself at their head.

The Second Triumvirate.—Antony wanted to make himself master of the state. He had on his side Lep'idus, an old soldier, "master of the horse." Octavius opposed them, and there was some fighting. Then the three came together and formed what was called the "Second Triumvirate." They agreed to divide the supreme power among them, and to murder their enemies as Sulla and Marius had done. Several thousand leading Romans were slaughtered, chief among them being the famous orator Cicero, who had made bitter speeches against Mark Antony.



MARK ANTONY.

The Death of the Conspirators.—The first thing done by the triumvirs was to attack Brutus and Cassius, who were in Thrace with a large army. They were defeated at a place called Philip'pi in 42 B.C. After the battle Brutus and Cassius killed themselves. That ended the fight for the old republic.

Antony loves Cleopatra.—The second triumvirate had much the same story as the first. Lepidus was a feeble man like Cassius, and soon dropped out of sight. And Octavius and Antony—like Cæsar and Pompey—were soon at war. Antony had taken the East for his share and made Alexandria his capital, where he fell deeply in love with Cleopatra, the fascinating young queen of Egypt, who had formerly captivated Cæsar. In order to marry her, he divorced his wife Octavia, the sister of Octavius.

The Fight at Actium.—This and other acts of Antony brought on war, and the fleets and armies of the rivals in power met at Ac′tium, on the west coast of Greece, in 31 B.C. The soldiers only looked on, all the fighting being



THE BATTLE OF ACTIUM.

done by the ships. But in the midst of the battle Cleopatra fled in panic with her sixty ships. When Antony saw her going he lost his wits. Love drew him more than power, and he hastened after her. When it was known that he had gone, the fleet and army surrendered to Octavius.

The End of the Lovers.—The rest of the story of Antony and Cleopatra is like a scene in a tragedy. When Octavius came near Alexandria, Cleopatra concealed herself and sent word to Antony that she was dead. Filled with anguish at the news, the love sick man gave himself a mortal wound, and when he heard afterwards that she was alive, he had himself carried to her and died at her feet. Love was more to him than the mastery of the world. Cleopatra now tried

to win young Octavius by her arts, but when she saw that they had failed she had herself bitten, so the story goes, by an asp, a poisonous serpent of Egypt, and followed her lover to death.

The Empire established.—So died the last monarch of Egypt, for that old kingdom was now (30 B.C.) made a province of Rome. Octavius Cæsar was master of all the vast dominion of Rome, and was greeted, as Cæsar had been, with the title of imperator, or commander-in-chief. He did not take the hated name of king. In the year 27 B.C. he was saluted with the new title of Augustus, and this is the name by which he is known in history. All the old officials and old forms remained, but all the power was in his hands, and Rome had now fully changed from a republic into an empire. The royal title imperator has become emperor in English.

SUMMARY OF THE HISTORY OF REPUBLICAN ROME.

Rome founded (traditional date)	753	B.C.
Ruled by seven (traditional) kings, from Romulus to Tarquin	753–509	"
Roman republic founded	509	"
Secession of the Plebeians	494	"
Tribunes of the people appointed and many other reforms granted	494–367	"
Laws of the Twelve Tables framed	451	"
Rome taken and burned by the Gauls	390	"
The Samnite, Latin, and other wars in Italy	343–339	"
Pyrrhus invades Italy; is forced to leave after winning several victories	280–275	"
The Romans masters of all Italy	264	"
First Punic war (Rome and Carthage)	264–241	"
Second Punic war	218–202	"
Hannibal crosses the Alps and defeats the Romans in great battles	218–216	"

Syracuse taken by Rome	212	B.C.
Defeat of Hannibal at Zama	202	"
Defeat of Perseus at Pydna and conquest of Macedonia	183	"
Greece is made a Roman province	146	"
Third Punic war; Carthage taken and destroyed	146	"
Conquest of the Spanish tribes	133	"
Reforms and assassination of Tiberius and Caius Gracchus	133–120	"
The war with Jugurtha	111–106	"
Marius defeats the Cimbri and Teutons	102	"
The Mithradatic war	88–63	"
The rivalry of Marius and Sulla, and period of civil war at Rome	88–79	"
Marius massacres his opponents	86	"
Sulla does the same and is made perpetual dictator	83–81	"
Pompey, Cæsar, and Crassus form the First Triumvirate	60	"
Cæsar's triumphant campaign in Gaul	58–50	"
Cæsar's rivalry with Pompey; he crosses the Rubicon and marches on Rome	49	"
War between Cæsar and Pompey; Cæsar's victory at Pharsalia	48	"
Cæsar assassinated by conspirators	44	"
Octavius, Antony, and Lepidus form the Second Triumvirate	43	"
Brutus and Cassius, the leaders of the conspiracy against Cæsar, defeated at Philippi	42	"
Antony infatuated with Cleopatra; quarrels with Octavius; is defeated at Actium	31	"
Octavius makes himself absolute ruler of Rome, with the title of Augustus Cæsar	29	"

CHAPTER VI

ROME UNDER THE EARLY EMPERORS

The Rulers of Rome.—You have now gone over the story of Rome, from its beginning in the little group of huts built by Romulus on the Palatine Hill, to the establishment of the vast empire of which Augustus Cæsar was absolute monarch. It had been governed by kings, consuls, tribunes, and dictators, and was now under the rule of an emperor, with a mighty army to obey his every wish, and with all the people of the great empire the slaves of his will. Thus had vanished the republic of Rome.

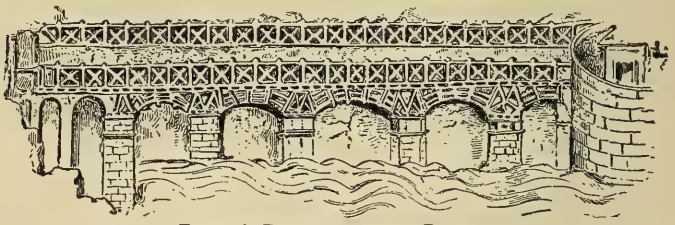


AUGUSTUS CÆSAR.

The Extent of the Empire.—It is well to speak here of the extent of the Roman Empire. You have seen it spreading and spreading, at first through Italy and into Africa; then through Europe to east and west, and then far into Asia; until finally it took in nearly all the civilized world. From east to west it was two thousand seven hundred miles in length, and it was more than one thousand miles broad from north to south. This far-reaching realm took in all the countries of Europe now known as Spain, France, Belgium, Switzerland, Greece, Turkey, and the lower parts of Germany and Austria. The Rhine and Danube Rivers bounded it on the north. In Africa it included the whole northern part of the continent from Morocco to Egypt and

back to the great desert of Sahara. In Asia it embraced all of Asia Minor and Syria to the shores of the Red Sea.

The Boundaries of Rome.—Some of the emperors after Augustus made Rome a little larger, but not much. They conquered the southern half of the British island, and built a wall across its northern part to keep out the fierce tribes of Scotland. They gained a district in the east, north of the Danube, called Dacia. In Asia they conquered Armenia and the old realm of Assyria. This was as far as they ever got. In Asia the warlike Parthians kept them from going farther. In Europe the wild tribes of the German forests proved unconquerable. So in later Rome most of the wars were among its own people, due to rebellions or to generals who wished to become emperor.



TRAJAN'S BRIDGE OVER THE DANUBE.

The People and Government of the Empire.—We do not know how many people this mighty empire held. There may have been as many as a hundred million human beings in all. And hosts of these—perhaps not less than half of them—were held as slaves. The provinces and the cities were allowed to keep their old laws and customs, but they were put under governors and other officials sent from Rome, and had heavy taxes to pay. The rich fields of Africa sent to Rome much of the grain on which the people of that great city lived. The troops of the regular army, three

hundred and fifty thousand strong, were scattered through the provinces. In Italy and Rome were the Præto′rian guards of ten thousand men, tried soldiers all, who received



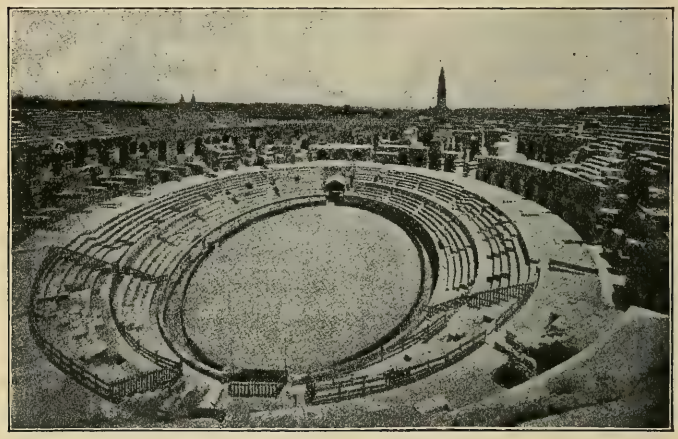
PRÆTORIAN GUARDSMEN.

double pay. They were instituted by Augustus to protect his life, and in time grew so powerful that they made any one they pleased emperor.

The Splendor of Rome.—As for the city of Rome itself, the centre of this grand empire, it had grown to be the greatest city in the world. It is calculated that it must, at its highest state, have contained two millions and a half of people. Many of its buildings, its temples, palaces, theatres, etc., were great and magnificent, and the whole city was a splendid one. Augustus tells us that he "found the city brick and left it marble," and the emperors who came after him added to it many grand and stately buildings. The most famous of these were the vast Colise′um, where the greatest shows and games were held; the Cap′itol, and the

temples near it; the Senate-House; the Forum, where the people met; the Pan'theon, or Temple of all the Gods; and the noble triumphal arches, some of which still stand. At its largest the walls of Rome were twenty miles long, with thirty gates of entrance. But outside them were large and populous suburbs.

Great Public Works.—Rome was never such a splendid centre of beautiful architecture as Athens. But it went far beyond Athens in works for public use; for the Roman people were practical where the Grecian people were artistic.



Roman Amphitheatre at Nimes, France.

Rome in its days of grandeur held four hundred and twenty temples. It had sixteen public baths built of marble, and with every convenience for bathers. It possessed seven mighty circuses and a number of theatres and amphitheatres. There were very many palaces, public halls, columns, and porticos, and great aqueducts supplied the city and the baths with an abundance of pure and clear water,

which set going an immense number of fountains, many of them adorned with rich ornaments of Greek art.

The Emperors.—In history, as in everything else, it is well to stop from time to time and look around us to find out where we are. That is what we have just been doing. Now, with Rome laid out before us, we may go on with the story of its emperors. It is a long and often a sickening story. There were more than seventy emperors in all, and among them were some of the worst monsters the world has ever known. It is true that there were high minded and noble men among them also, but history tells us more about the bad than it does about the good. None of them, good or bad alike, could save Rome, for after the age of Augustus it went on, stage by stage, to its decay and fall.

The Power of Augustus.—Augustus, as we have seen, was cruel in his early days, when he agreed with Antony and Lepidus to kill all their enemies. It was base in him to permit the noble Cicero to be murdered. But as emperor he showed himself a great and good ruler, and under him Rome reached its highest glory. He did not take the title of king, for he knew how the Romans hated it. So he let the senate stand, with all the forms of the old repuplic. The consuls, tribunes, and other officials were still elected, but this was a mere show, for all the power was his. He ruled the people mildly and justly, and they were satisfied with the shadow of their old free government.

Writers of the Golden Age.—Augustus was a wise patron of literature, and the greatest writers of Rome flourished during his reign. These included the celebrated poets, Virgil, Ovid, and Horace. Among the greatest of Roman prose writers were Cicero and Cæsar, who just

preceded his reign, and the famous historians, Livy and Sallust. These writers belong to what is known as the "Golden Age of Roman Literature." Other fine writers came soon after, but those named are the most esteemed.

The Temple of Janus.—The reign of Augustus was a long one. It lasted from the battle of Actium, in 31 B.C., to 14 A.D., a period of forty-four years. They were happy years for Rome, for the emperor reigned well and everything flourished. Never had Rome been so little troubled with war. In the city was a very old temple built of bronze and called the Temple of Ja'nus. Janus was a Latin god, looked upon as the opener of the gates of heaven. The gates of his temple were left open in times of war, and were closed only in times of peace. They were closed three times during the reign of Augustus. They had been closed only twice before during the long history of the city.

Varus and the Germans.—The gates of the Temple of Janus had to be thrown open near the end of the great emperor's reign, for war came again. A strong Roman army crossed the Rhine, under a general named Va'rus, and tried to conquer the German tribes of that region. But these rose against him under their brave chief Her'mann,—Armin'ius, the Romans called him,—and the army of Varus suffered a terrible defeat. Twenty thousand of its soldiers lay dead in the German swamps and woods. It was a terrible blow to the old emperor, who kept crying in agony, "Varus, give me back my legions." He died a few years after, in his seventy-seventh year.

The Birth of Christ.—There was one very important event in the reign of Augustus of which we must speak. You may notice that we give the date of his accession as 31 B.C., and of his death as 14 A.D. This signifies that Christ

was born during his reign. The Great Redeemer was still a boy in Judea when Augustus died, but the future history of Rome was to be wonderfully affected by His birth.

Augustus given Divine Honors.—The senate would have liked to make a god of Augustus. Before his time the title of Augustus had been sacred to the gods, and they now decreed him divine honors and had temples erected for the people to worship him in. Some of the later emperors—half insane ones—wanted the people to worship them as gods while they still lived. We possess the name of Augustus still in the month August, as we do that of Julius Cæsar in the month July. The divisions of the year we now possess were made by Cæsar.



THE EMPEROR TIBERIUS IN OLD AGE, CROWNED WITH OAK-LEAVES.

The Fate of the Emperors.—The remaining history of Rome, as written, is far more that of the emperors than of the people. And of these emperors the greater number are not worth mentioning, even by name. Most of them were so cruel or worthless that the people or the army got rid of them by murder. Out of seventy-three in all, forty-two were murdered, three killed themselves, and two were forced to leave the throne.

The Twelve Cæsars.—History has much to say of the Twelve Cæsars, who included Julius and Augustus and the ten that followed, though the later emperors also took the name of Cæsar. Among the ten who followed Augustus

were some of the most cruel of the tyrants. Tibe'rius (14 A.D.), the step-son of Augustus, was the first of these. He was gloomy and suspicious, and had so many men put to death that all the people of note were in a state of mortal fear. The land was full of spies, and a word, or even a thought, against the emperor was enough to bring death. The great event in the reign of Tiberius was the crucifixion of Christ, at Jerusalem.

The Wickedness and Folly of Caligula.—Chief among the wicked emperors were Calig'ula and Ne'ro. Caligula (37 A.D.) was a man of weak mind, and he acted like a madman. He made his favorite horse a consul and fed it with gilded oats in a golden manger. He declared that he was a god, and had the heads taken off the statues of Jupiter and his own put in their place. Any one at whom he pointed his finger or nodded his head was at once killed. He wished that "all the people of Rome had but one neck, so that he might cut it off at a single blow."

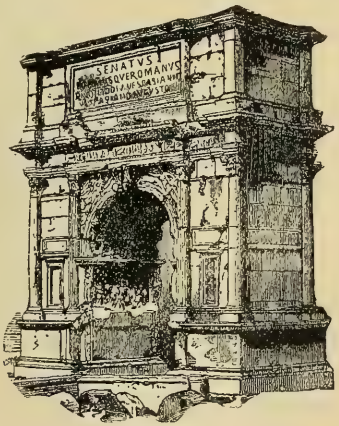


THE EMPEROR NERO AS VICTOR IN THE GREEK GAMES.

Nero and his Cruelty.—Nero (54 A.D.) had been educated by the great philosopher Sen'eca, and for five years he reigned quietly and mildly. Then he entered upon a career of wickedness and cruelty, murdering his mother and wife to get them out of his way. In his reign there came a great fire which burned a large part of Rome. While the flames rose Nero sat in a high place playing a lyre and chanting a poem. It was said that the fire had been started by

his orders. To silence this charge he blamed it on the Christians, of whom there were many then in the city, and he began a dreadful persecution of this new sect, putting its members to death in the most cruel ways. Many of them were covered with pitch and burned in the gardens of the palace as human torches. In the end the people rose against this monster of iniquity, and he killed himself to escape their wrath.

The Vile Domitian.—Domi'tian (81 A.D.), the last of the Twelve Cæsars, was another cruel and wicked tyrant, who had great numbers of noble Romans put to death, and whose favorite amusement was to kill flies with a pin. Yet he called himself a god and put up his statues to be worshipped. And he persecuted the Jews because they would not worship these statues. He persecuted the Christians also, as Nero had done.



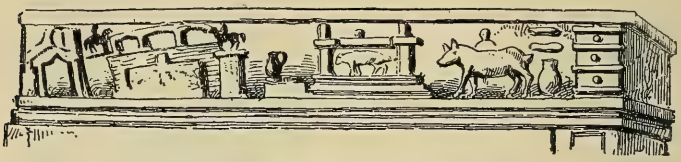
ARCH OF TITUS.

Vespasian and Titus.—Before Domitian there were two good emperors,—Vespa'sian and his son Ti'tus. Titus was a brother of Domitian, yet he was so kind and generous that men called him the "Delight of Mankind." He would not sign a death warrant, and when a day passed without his doing a good deed he said that day was lost.

The Siege of Jerusalem.—The great event of the reign of Vespasian (67 A.D.) was the siege of Jerusalem. The

Jews rebelled against the Romans, and Titus was sent to put them down. They crowded into Jerusalem until there were more than a million of them within the walls. The siege lasted six months, and in the end the city and temple were burned, large numbers of the people killed, and the remainder sold or banished. Since that dreadful event the Jews have had no country of their own, but have been wanderers over the face of the earth.

Two Great Disasters.—There were two great disasters in the reign of Titus (79 A.D.) One of these was a destructive fire in Rome, like that in the reign of Nero. Also the volcano Vesuvius broke into a violent eruption and buried in ashes and lava the cities of Pompeii (Pom-pa′ye) and Her-



Bas-Relief of Earthquake at Pompeii.

cula′neum. The eruption had been preceded by a disastrous earthquake. Pompeii has been dug out in our own times, and we have learned from its ruins much about the way the Romans lived. Another event of this time was the building by Vespasian and Titus of the immense amphitheatre called the Coliseum, a vast structure whose walls in great part still stand. It had seats for eighty thousand people.

The Five Good Emperors.—After the death of Domitian there came the "five good emperors,"—Ner′va, Tra′jan, Ha′drian, Antoni′nus Pi′us, and Mar′cus Aure′lius,—who reigned from 96 to 180 A.D. Under them Rome prospered and the people were happy and contented. Trajan was a sol-

dier, who conquered Dacia and parts of Asia, and gave Rome its greatest extension. Hadrian travelled much in the empire and erected many splendid buildings. Antoninus was a man who loved justice, and tried to make the people good and



The Emperor Antoninus Pius.

happy, and Marcus Aurelius was one of the last of the philosophers and a man of the noblest character.

Severus and Caracalla.—There is not much to be said of most of the emperors that followed. Septim'ius Seve'rus (193 B.C.) was a valiant soldier who won victories in Britain and Parthia. Caracal'la (211 A.D.) was a despicable wretch, yet he did one memorable thing,—he made all the freemen

of the empire citizens of Rome. This he did that he might put on them a special tax which only citizens paid. Another emperor, Alexander Seve'rus (222 A.D.), loved to be with the wise and good, and put over the doorway of his palace the words of Christ, "Do unto others that which you would they should do unto you."



THE EMPEROR SEPTIMIUS SEVERUS.

Great Coming Changes.—Christianity was now spreading rapidly in the empire, and the time was coming in which it would take the place of the old heathen religions. And a change of a different kind was at hand, for the barbarous tribes of the north and east were pressing severely upon the frontiers of Rome and threatening the empire on every side. It is this period of invasion with which we have next to do.

CHAPTER VII

THE LATER PERIOD OF THE EMPIRE

Rome's Last Two Centuries.—We have now before us the last two centuries of Roman history, those in which it moved on rapidly to its fall. Year by year, as time went on, the mighty empire grew weaker and more corrupt, and, strong as it seemed, it was like a tree that is rotten at the core.

Three Great Events.—Three great events mark these later days,—the growth of Christianity until it became the religion of the empire; the founding of a new capital city in the East, which robbed old Rome of much of its power and glory; and the invasion of the empire by the wild and daring tribes of Germany and the East. These are the events with which we shall deal in the present chapter.

Religion in Rome.—The old religion of Rome was much like that of Greece. Most of their gods were the same, though they bore different names. But as the empire spread outward new religions came in from Egypt, Syria, and other lands. They were all welcome. The Romans did not care what form of worship the people had, so they let the government alone.

The Early Christians.—It was not that way with the Christian religion. This was no idol worship, like the others. It made its way among the poor and obscure, instead of the rich and noble. Its meetings were held at night and secretly, and, as the people did not know what took place at these meetings, they began to believe that base

and vile things were done; and as the Christians sought new converts on all sides, and had a close and secret organization, the emperors began to suspect them of devising dangerous political plots.

The Persecutions.—It was this that led to the persecution of the Christians. The first persecution was by the



THE EMPEROR TRAJAN CROWNED WITH LAUREL.

wicked emperor Nero, who merely sought to hide his own crimes by putting these poor and pious people cruelly to death. But they were also persecuted by some of the best emperors, like Trajan and Marcus Aurelius, who suspected them of other than religious aims. Yet persecution seemed only to make their numbers grow more rapidly, and in time

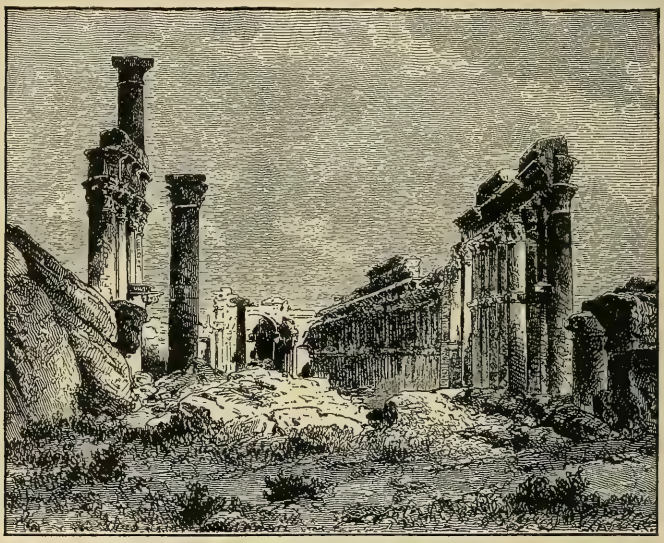
the Christian faith undermined all the old heathen idolatries of the empire, making its way among those of noble birth as well as among the humble and obscure. We shall see how it even reached the throne of the emperor and was made the state religion of Rome.

Severus and Maximin.—The emperor Alexander Severus was a man of Christian spirit, and, as we have said, had Christ's great commandment written over the doorway of his palace. But he was too good a man for his soldiers, who killed him and put in his place a peasant soldier from Thrace, named Max'imin, whose only warrant for the dignity was that he was a giant in size and as strong as an ox. You may see that Rome had fallen very low when it could rest content under emperors like this.

Fifty Years of Weakness.—For the next fifty years all the emperors were too weak to keep back the tribes of the north, and it seemed as if the empire would fall to pieces. Then there came some good, strong men, who drove the barbarians back into their forests. There is one story to tell about this time, that of the famous queen Zenobia.

The Kingdom of Palmyra.—In the middle of the Syrian desert, between the Mediterranean and the Euphrates, there was a splendid city named Palmy'ra, at that time ruled over by Prince Odena'tus. This prince had helped the Romans in their wars with the Persians, who had now overturned the Parthian Empire and started a new Persian realm. The senate of Rome rewarded the prince of Palmyra for his services with honors and dignities. But when he saw how weak the Romans were growing, he thought he would like to be free and build up a strong kingdom of his own, with Palmyra for its capital.

Zenobia and Aurelian.—Odenatus died before he could carry out his plans, but his wife, Zeno'bia, who succeeded him as queen, was as ambitious as he had been. Zenobia was descended from Cleopatra, the famous Egyptian queen,



The Ruins of Palmyra.

and was as charming and attractive as that celebrated beauty. She now called herself the "Queen of the East," and defied the power of Rome. But there was then a strong and warlike emperor, named Aure'lian, and he marched against Zenobia, defeated her armies in several battles, and took her prisoner. When he got back to Rome he had a triumph, in which the captive queen was shown bound in golden chains. But she was not put to death, like so many of the captives of Rome, but was given a beautiful villa, where she afterwards lived happily with her children,

and no doubt liked her quiet villa better than she had done her unquiet throne. Travellers in the East to-day visit the old city of Palmyra and admire its magnificent ruins.

Diocletian and Maximian.—One of the great emperors came to the throne in the year 284 A.D. He was named Diocle'tian, and was the first to do away with the names and forms of the old republic, which had been kept up until now. Another thing he did was to take a soldier named Maxim'ian to rule with him, one of them having charge of the East and the other of the West. He thought that Rome was too large for one man to rule it. Each of them was called Augustus, and they took two others, whom they called Cæsars, to govern the distant provinces. So Rome had now four rulers.

The Christians persecuted.—Diocletian did one cruel thing. He started a persecution against the Christians, ordering his soldiers to tear down their churches and put them to death wherever they could be found. No doubt he thought they were a dangerous people, with secret plots. For ten long years this dreadful work of torture and terror was kept up, many of the Christians fleeing for refuge to the vast catacombs or quarries under the city of Rome, where they dwelt and worshipped and buried their dead for years.

Diocletian resigns.—After twenty years Diocletian got tired of reigning and gave up his throne. Maximian had to do the same, and the two Cæsars, Constan'tius and Gale'rius, took their places, and chose two new Cæsars. Maximian soon began to pine for his lost dignity, and wrote to Diocletian, urging him to take back the power he had given up. But Diocletian had found the true secret of happiness, and wrote back to him, "I wish you would come to Salona and

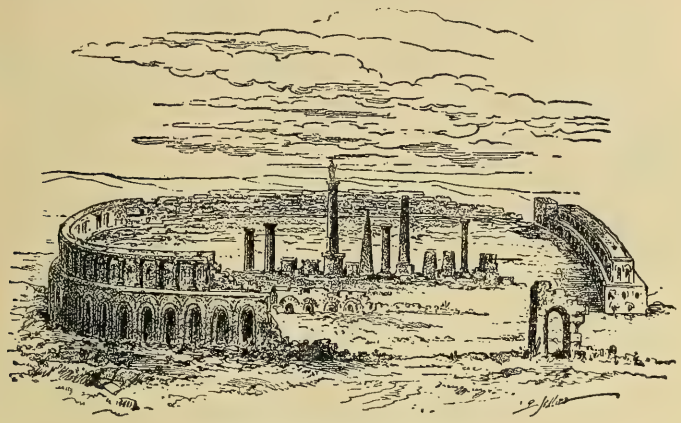
see the cabbages I have planted and raised; if you did, you would never again speak to me of empire."

Constantine's Wars.—And now we come to one of the greatest events in the history of Rome. Constantius died at the city of York, in the British island, and the army proclaimed his son Con'stantine as emperor. Others claimed the throne, until there were no less than six who wanted it, and it took eighteen years of fighting before Constantine overcame them all and made himself sole emperor.

Christianity triumphs.—While marching to fight one of the battles of these wars, so we are told, Constantine saw in the heavens a great shining cross, on which was the inscription in Greek, "By this conquer." Many doubt this story, but at any rate Constantine raised the standard of the cross and under its folds he won the battle. After that he pronounced himself a Christian, and in the year 313 A.D. he issued at Milan a decree in which, while all forms of worship were tolerated, Christianity was made the religion of the state. Was not this a wonderful change for a religion whose believers had been so terribly persecuted less than ten years before? A few years afterwards the emperor Ju'lian tried to overthrow Christianity and bring back the pagan worship, but he did not succeed.

A New Capital built.—There was another important thing which Constantine did. Some of the later emperors had never set foot in Rome, and Constantine went so far as to build a new capital for the kingdom at a more central point. This was at an old city called Byzan'tium, on the Bos'porus, the stream that flows between Europe and Asia. He called this city Constantino'ple, or "City of Constantine," and it soon grew into a great and imperial city, which took

away for the time much of the importance of ancient Rome. And in it rose splendid Christian churches to take the place of the old Greek and Roman temples.



THE HIPPODROME AT CONSTANTINOPLE.

The Barbarians.—Thus it was that the noble Christian faith displaced the old idolatry and became firmly established in Europe. It was soon to spread among the heathen barbarians of the north. It is of these barbarians that we must next speak: how they came out of their forest depths and swept down like a dread torrent over the empire of Rome, plundering and burning its cities, sweeping away its greatness and glory, and planting barbarism where civilization had so long flourished.

Dealings with the Barbarians.—We have seen how, when Rome was young, the Gauls captured and destroyed it. We have seen how, in later days, the Cimbri and Teutons were met and destroyed by Marius. We have seen how Cæsar conquered the tribes of Gaul, and how Varus and his legions were destroyed in Germany. In vain

did the Romans try to subdue the valiant tribes dwelling north of the Rhine and the Danube, and this great region was the nest of the multitudes who were to put an end to the empire of Rome.

The Gothic Irruption.—When De'cius was emperor (249–251 A.D.) the Goths crossed the Danube, defeated the Romans, took the city of Philippop'olis, and massacred one hundred thousand of its people. In another battle they killed the emperor himself. Later on they burned the celebrated temple at Eph'esus. Another emperor, Vale'rian, was taken prisoner by the Persian king, who took him about in chains, and used him as a footstool to mount his horse. That showed how little the power of Rome was then feared.

The Germans, Picts, and Moors.—A century after this we find the barbarians more daring still. The Germans cross the Rhine, plunder the country to the south, and then escape over the river with their booty. The Saxon pirates sail down the seas and ravage the coasts of Gaul and Britain. The Picts of Scotland break through the Roman wall and drive the Romans from nearly the whole island of Britain. The Moorish tribes of Africa force back the Romans to the shores of the sea. On every side barbarism is pressing over the outworks of civilization.

The Huns and the Goths.—From the east came the next great outbreak. The Goths were quietly settled in the Roman province of Dacia, northeast of the Danube, and had been converted to Christianity, when out of Asia came a terrible horde of savages called the Huns, the most frightful people Europe had yet seen. The Goths fled before them in mortal fear and appeared on the Danube, which they begged permission to cross, saying that the Huns would kill them all,

and that they would be the faithful friends and allies of the Romans. Their request was granted, and a vast multitude of them crossed the great river.

Theodosius the Great.—The Romans did not treat them well, and soon there was a quarrel, and a great battle was fought, in which the emperor Va'lens was killed (378 A.D.) The Goths were defeated by the next emperor, Theodo'sius the Great, who took large numbers of them into the Roman armies. Theodosius was the last great Roman ruler. When he died, 395 A.D., he divided the empire between his two sons, Hono'rius being made emperor of the West, and Arca'dius emperor of the East. This was the beginning of the "Eastern Empire," which was to last a thousand years. That of the West was near its end.



GERMAN AUXILIARIES. (From a second century manuscript.)

The Victories of Stilicho.—The Goths had now an able leader named Al'aric, who claimed that his people had been badly treated by the Romans and led them down into Greece, where he swept in a plundering raid from Thermopylæ to Sparta. The raiders were driven out by a brave general named Stil'icho, but they soon crossed the Alps and invaded Italy. Here Stilicho met them again and drove them back in a terrible defeat. The Italians had been in a panic of fear, and were now so glad that they gave Stilicho a grand triumph—the last one Rome ever saw.

Alaric in Rome.—Alaric had gone back only for a time. Five years later the foolish emperor Honorius grew jealous of his great general and had him treacherously murdered. Then back into Italy came Alaric and his Goths and marched on Rome (410 A.D.). They burst

into the capital at night, and the people "were awakened by the tremendous sound of the Gothic trumpet."

Six Days of Pillage.—Just eight hundred years before that the Gauls had captured and destroyed Rome. Alaric was a Christian, and he ordered his men to spare the churches and the lives of the people. But for six days and nights the rude barbarians pillaged the city, and there was much slaughter and burning for all their promises. Then Alaric led his men away, laden down with the spoils of the Eternal City.

The End at Hand.—The end of the empire was near at hand. On all sides the barbarian hordes were swarming over the borders. Britain was lost and Gaul was drained of its troops. Hosts of warriors spread over the plains and valleys of Gaul and poured into Spain. The Vandals, a fierce and cruel people, occupied the south of Spain, crossed into Africa, drove out the Romans, and made the old city of Carthage their capital. The Goths left Italy and founded a new kingdom in the south of Gaul and north of Spain. Thus the old empire was fast being torn to pieces.

Attila the Hun.—Now we must go back to the Huns, who had driven the Goths across the Danube. They were led by an able and daring chief named At′tila, who ravaged the Eastern Empire and forced the emperor to buy him off with an immense sum of gold. Then he marched with his savage followers, seven hundred thousand strong, to Gaul. Such frightful-looking men were they that all Europe shook with fear. Attila boasted that the "grass never grew on the spot where his horse had trod," and the frightened people called him the "Scourge of God."

Defeat and Death of Attila.—But Æ′tius, Rome's last great general, met him with an army of Romans and Goths

on the plain of Châlons (Shā-lōn′), and after a long and fierce battle drove him back in utter defeat. The loss of the Huns is estimated at from one hundred thousand to three hundred thousand warriors. Yet the next year Attila was in Italy, committing frightful devastations. Many of its flourishing cities were taken and utterly destroyed. He was induced to spare Rome by the entreaties of its bishop and the payment of a large sum of money, and the next year (453 A.D.), happily for Europe, he died.



ATTILA, THE HUN, THE "SCOURGE OF GOD."

The Sack of Genseric.—But Rome was not to escape. Its fate was to come from Carthage, the city which it had once so ruthlessly destroyed. This city was now the capital of the fierce Vandals, whose king, Gen′seric, sailed for Italy in the year 455 A.D. Leo, bishop of Rome, again sought to save the city, but Genseric said that the plunder belonged to his warriors, and have it they should. All he would promise was the lives of the people. For fourteen days and nights

the plundering went on; palaces, temples, and churches were stripped of their rich ornaments; and when the ships of Genseric sailed for Africa they carried away more than thirty thousand of the people as slaves. Carthage was at last avenged.

The Last Emperor.—The last of the Roman emperors was a child of six years old, bearing the name of Rome's first king, Romulus. In disdain this child was called Augus′-tulus, "the little Augustus." In 476 A.D. a German chief named Odoa′cer dethroned this boy, abolished the title of emperor, and proclaimed himself King of Italy. Thus ended the Roman Empire of the West.

CHAPTER VIII

ROMAN ARTS AND CUSTOMS

You know something now of the history of Rome, its humble origin, its great progress, its power and glory, its decline and fall. It remains to speak of the character and customs of the Romans, their great works in architecture and art, their literature, and their amusements.

War a Business in Rome.—War was the business of the Romans. They had a passion for conquest, and they succeeded because they knew how to bear and overcome defeat, and never gave up an enterprise until they won success. But they were a cruel and ruthless people in their wars, and the sum of human suffering they caused was frightful to think of. All the ancient nations were cruel in their wars, but there were none more so than the Romans.

The Roman Army.—The Roman army was divided into legions, as ours is divided into brigades and corps. A legion was made up of three thousand foot soldiers and three hundred horsemen. Later on it contained from five thousand to seven thousand men, who were divided up into cohorts, or regiments, and centuries, or companies. For a long time every citizen of proper age had to serve in the army, but in later years soldiers were enlisted for twenty years and were paid for their services. As the empire grew old many of the Goths and Germans were taken into the army, and there they learned how to fight against as well as to

fight for Rome. And they also learned what riches there were to be won in the great cities.

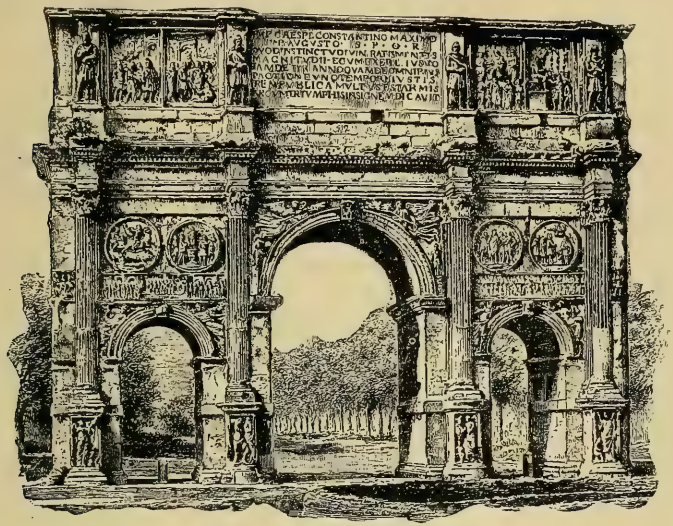
The Arms of the Soldiers.—The Roman soldier was armed with the *pilum*, a heavy spear, six feet long. This he flung at the foe when a few paces away, and then attacked with his short, stout sword. In front were the light-armed *velites*, who threw their javelins and then ran back. The Roman camp was always fortified with a ditch and a palisade of stakes, even if they halted for only a single night. In attacking cities they used military engines, such as the battering-ram, the ballista for throwing stones, the catapult for hurling darts, and the movable tower which was pushed up to and overlooked the walls. Each soldier had to carry on the march, besides his arms, grain enough to last him from seventeen to thirty days, wooden stakes for the camp, and tools for intrenching.



A Roman Soldier.

A Roman Triumph.—We have spoken of the triumphs of certain generals. These were grand triumphal processions and were popular events in Rome. Every general when returning from a victorious war was granted a triumph. A splendid procession marched up the *Via Sacra* (sacred street) to the Capitol, where a bull or an ox was sacrificed to Jupiter. The victor entered the city by the gate of triumph, in a four-horse chariot, and was met by the senate and the great officials. In his train were the spoils and the

distinguished captives taken in the war and the other prisoners in chains; also the civil authorities, the priests with the animal to be sacrificed, the victor crowned with laurel in his chariot, and the army in the rear.



Triumphal Arch of Constantine.

Roman Cruelty.—Many of these triumphs were splendid displays, and were made great public holidays, the temples being thrown open and adorned with flowers, and the people thronging the streets in their best attire, or gazing from balconies or scaffoldings. But the innate cruelty of the Romans is shown in the fact that the great captives, after being shown in the triumph, were often thrust into dark dungeons and left there to perish in misery.

Roman Amusements.—The amusements of the Romans also showed how cruel they were at heart, for what they

most enjoyed was a game in which animals or men were killed before their eyes. They never cared much for the theatre, but they were fond of the pantomime, in which everything was in show, for their theatres were too large for many to hear what was said on the stage. What they most enjoyed were the chariot races in the circus and the fights of animals and gladiators in the arena.

Animal Combats.—The amphitheatre, in which the fights of the gladiators were given, was an immense oval-shaped building, with rows of seats that held thousands of spectators and with a sand-strewn level place or arena in the centre. In this place wild animals from all quarters were set loose, —bears and wolves from Europe, elephants and tigers from Asia, lions, leopards, and other animals from Africa,—and were goaded on to bloody and terrible combats.

The Arena.—The fights of animals in time grew too tame for the Roman. He longed to see men fighting, with all the skill and art of which they were capable, and reddening with their blood the sands of the arena, or to see Christians or other victims exposed to the rending ferocity of wild animals maddened by darts.

The Gladiators.—It was the combats of gladiators that especially gratified the bloodthirsty Romans, and they would gather in vast multitudes to see men slay one another on the sand of the arena. At first the gladiators were made up of slaves, captives, or criminals. Afterwards free citizens offered themselves,—desperate men of all classes. At last knights and senators and even women descended into the arena.

How the Gladiators fought.—The gladiators fought sometimes in pairs, sometimes in great companies; on foot, on horseback, in chariots, and armed with weapons of all

kinds. Some carried nets with which they sought to entangle their opponent and then kill him. The dead bodies were hauled with hooks from the arena and fresh sand was strewn over the pools of blood. A wounded gladiator often appealed to the audience for his life. His safety depended on their whim. They extended their hands, and his fate was decided by the way in which their thumbs were turned, whether up or down.

Immense Entertainments.—Some of these shows were on a very grand scale. We are told of twenty maddened elephants driven in on six hundred war captives. The emperor Titus, when the Coliseum was finished, gave games that lasted one hundred days; and Trajan, after his victories, kept up his shows for a still longer time. In these, ten thousand gladiators fought and wild beasts in still greater numbers were slain.

The Closing of the Arena.—You have read how Stilicho, after defeating Alaric and the Goths, celebrated his victory by a grand triumph, the last Rome ever saw. In the same year (404 A.D.) the last fight of gladiators was seen. These were pagan spectacles; the Christians always beheld them with horror, and were eager to have them abolished. On this occasion a Christian monk named Telem'achus ran into the arena during a combat, rushed between the gladiators, and was instantly killed with weapons thrown by the people, who were furious at this interruption of their sports. But they soon repented of this act, and the emperor Honorius issued an edict which brought these bloody shows to an end forever.

The Use of the Arch.—In their great works of architecture the Romans showed their practical spirit, where the Greeks had shown their love for art. They had usefulness

in view in their greatest works. The principle of the arch, which had been known ages before, was first put into common use by the Romans. We see it used in the vast dome of their great circular temple, the Pantheon. We see it in their massive stone bridges, many of which remain in various parts of the empire. We see it in their grand triumphal arches and their lofty aqueducts, which were carried by archways across the deepest valleys.



THE BATHS OF CARACALLA.

The Great Aqueducts.—The practical genius of Rome is to be seen in all its remains. Of the great aqueducts there were fourteen in all, the longest being over sixty miles in length. They usually ran below the surface, but in places they were carried on arches more than one hundred feet

high. Others of the Roman works were the great solidly paved military roads, the fine harbors, and the drainage canals cut through miles of solid rock.

The Bathing-Houses.—The water brought into Rome by the aqueducts was largely used in the *Thermæ*, or baths, which were among the finest structures in the city, bathing being a passion with the Romans. In these buildings there were conveniences for cold, hot, tepid, and swimming baths; also gymnasia, museums, libraries, conversation rooms, grounds with pleasant walks and full of statues, and every aid to luxury and recreation. They were like great public club-houses, for they were open free of charge to the people.

Free Distribution of Corn.—The provision for the free enjoyment of the citizens was not confined to the baths, the races in the circus, the theatres, and the gladiatorial shows, but went so far that food was distributed free. The corn brought from Africa and elsewhere was freely given to the citizens, of whom over three hundred thousand were thus fed in the palmy days of Rome. It was a ruinous system, though it was instituted by the patriot Caius Gracchus. It produced general idleness and had much to do with the development of vice and immorality.

The Early Literature.—Something has already been said about the writers of Rome in the age of Augustus. There is little more that need be said, for much of the literature of Rome was a copy of that of Greece. For many centuries Rome had no writers. Then there came several writers of plays, but they got their plots and much of their language from the Greek comedians. We have spoken of the great writers of the "Golden Age," but there were others of earlier date. One of these was Lucil'ius, the first noted writer of satire. Another was Lucre'tius, whose great poem, "On

the Nature of Things," is a remarkable combination of science and poetry.

Writers of the Silver Age.—After the "Golden Age" came the "Silver Age," in which the most famous writers were Pliny (Plin'e) the Elder, whose great work is his "Natural History;" Pliny the Younger, the charming letter-writer; Tacitus (Tas'i-tus), the historian, whose chief work is his "Germania;" Ju'venal, the greatest of the satirical poets; and Sen'eca, who wrote brilliantly on ethics and other subjects. We must also name the two philosophers, Epicte'tus, the slave, and Marcus Aurelius, the emperor. The slave was as wise as the emperor, and their ethical sayings are still highly prized.

Legal Lore of Rome.—The Romans did not imitate the Greeks in all their writings. They were original in satire, and also in legal lore. It was in the law that the practical character of the Romans best showed itself. Here they were not pupils but teachers, and one of the greatest gifts of Rome to the modern world was its splendid system of laws. We have spoken of the "Laws of the Twelve Tables," which every school-boy had to learn by heart. Hundreds of other laws followed these, until there was an immense number of them.

Justinian and the Laws.—In the year 527 A.D. Justinian became emperor of the Eastern Empire. He set a commission at work to collect and arrange the laws of Rome. The result was a grand legal work, the *Corpus Juris Civilis*, or "Body of the Civil Law." This has had a wonderful effect on the legal systems of Europe, and is the great foundation of modern law.

Rights of the Roman Father.—The Roman father could do what he pleased with his children. He could sell his son

as a slave or put him to death if he wished, and this could be done even after the boy had grown up and married. The deformed or sickly child was usually drowned at birth, though it was rare to put an older boy to death. Every man had the right to commit suicide if he wished, and no one could legally interfere. If tired of life, a man would sometimes open his veins amid his friends and family, and talk with them as he slowly bled to death. This was often done by order of the emperors. The philosopher Seneca was ordered to kill himself in this way by the tyrant Nero.

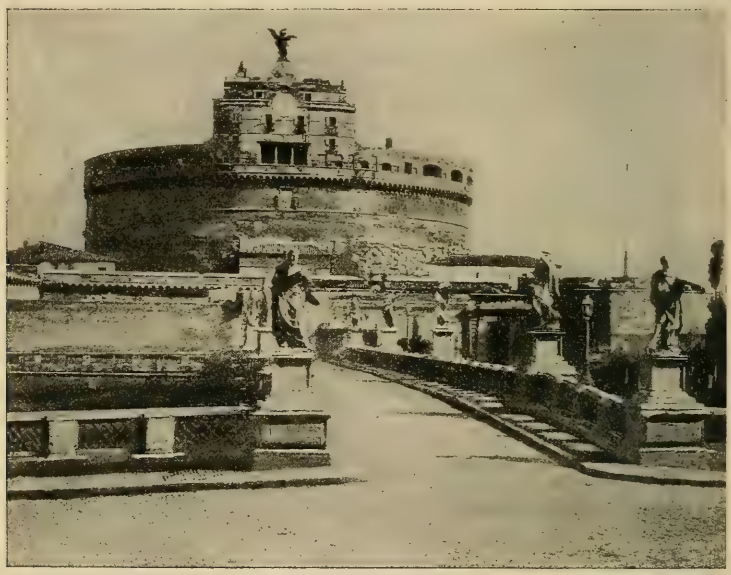
Education in Rome.—Education in Rome was more practical than in Greece. Boys were taught law, rhetoric, and oratory, for public speaking was an important art under the republic. In later times they studied Greek and carefully read and analyzed the great works of literature from Homer down. At sixteen the boy reached the legal age of manhood and put on the dress of man.

The Roman Dress.—The dress worn by men was the toga, a loose upper garment, under which a closer tunic was worn. Only citizens of Rome could wear the toga, which was of pure white wool and nearly semicircular in form. It was thrown over the left shoulder and brought round the body. Sandals, or a kind of shoe, were worn on the feet. Roman women wore an inner tunic and a loose over-dress, confined at the waist by a girdle, and ending in a deep border which reached to the feet. A kind of shawl was worn in the street, and many ornaments were used.

The Privileges of Women.—The unmarried girl was usually kept in the house and out of sight, but the married woman had much more freedom. She might attend the races at the circus or the shows at the theatre and the amphitheatre, and had far more liberty than the Grecian

woman. Divorce was very common in the later days of Rome, for the husband could divorce his wife with little or no excuse.

The Roman House.—The discovery of the ruins of Pompeii, which, as has been said, was buried under ashes from Vesuvius in 79 A.D., has taught us many useful things about



THE TOMB OF HADRIAN.

the Roman houses. First came the vestibule, often with rows of statues or other ornaments; then a doorway decorated with ivory, gold, and tortoise shell, and with the word *salve* ("welcome") on the threshold. This opened to the *atrium*, or reception-room, which was divided by rows of pillars from the wings. Here were the family hearth and the figures of the ancestral deities. Farther in was a large salon

called the peristyle, with a mosaic floor and finely decorated walls. Such was one of the houses of the wealthy, in which might be found ivory bedsteads, tables of precious wood, sideboards laden with precious plate, and everything conducive to luxury and display. We fancy there was very little of this sort of thing in the houses of the poor.

The Villa.—These were the city houses. In the country there were many beautiful villas. Pliny the Younger, who was a man of wealth, tells us about his villas, and they must have been very fine from his description. Around them were handsome gardens and beautiful groves, fountains, and summer-houses, boxwood hedges, and everything to make the place charming and attractive.

The Farm.—In the early days the Romans were fond of farming. You have read of Cincinnatus and his farm. In later times the farm labor was left to the slaves, who did all the hard and menial work in Rome. At first the farmers lived in little huts and very likely had only spades to dig up their ground. But afterwards they had ploughs and oxen to draw them, and good farm-houses, with barns and storehouses, and cellars for wine and oil. They raised all the grains except maize, and planted vineyards, making wine from the grapes much as it is done now. Many sheep and goats were kept, and their wool and hair were woven into cloth. Goats' milk was much used. The gardens contained at first only a few common herbs and fruits, but later on the delicious fruits and gorgeous flowers of Asia were grown, and gardening became something of a fine art. In the later days of the empire farming almost disappeared in Italy, and there was much suffering when the grain of Africa ceased to come after the Vandal conquest.

THE ROMAN EMPERORS AND NOTABLE EVENTS OF THEIR REIGNS.

Augustus becomes emperor	31	B.C.
Christ is born in Judea	4	"
Defeat of Varus by the Germans	10	A.D.
Tiberius	14	"
Caligula	37	"
Claudius	41	"
Nero	54	"
Great fire in Rome	64	"
Persecution of the Christians	64	"
Galba	68	"
Otho	69	"
Vitellius	69	"
Vespasian	69	"
Jerusalem taken and destroyed	70	"
Titus	79	"
Destruction of Pompeii and Herculaneum	79	"
Domitian (last of the Twelve Cæsars)	81	"
Nerva	96	"
Trajan	98	"
Conquest of Dacia	98–106	"
Great victories in Asia	115	"
Hadrian	117	"
Revolt of the Jews and their exile	131	"
Antoninus Pius	138	"
Marcus Aurelius (last of the "five good emperors")	161	"
Great inroads of the Germans	162–175	"
Commodus	180	"
Pertinax (first of the "Barrack Emperors," elected by the army)	192	"
Didius Julianus (buys throne from Prætorian guards)	193	"
Septimius Severus (disbands Prætorian guards)	193	"
Caracalla	211	"
All Freemen of the empire are made Roman citizens	212	"
Macrinus	217	"

Elagabalus	217	A.D.
Alexander Severus	222	"
Maximin	235	"
Gordian I.; Gordian II.	238	"
Maximus and Balbinas (joint reign)	238	"
Gordian III.	238	"
Philip	244	"
Decius (is defeated and slain by the Goths)	249	"
Gallus	251	"
Æmilianus	253	"
Valerian	254	"
Gallienus (nineteen pretenders to the throne)	260	"
Claudius II.	268	"
Dacia surrendered to the Goths	270	"
Aurelian	270	"
Revolt of Zenobia; conquest of Palmyra	273	"
Tacitus	275	"
Probus	276	"
Carus	282	"
Carinus, Numerian	283	"
Diocletian	284	"
Diocletian, Maximian (joint emperors of East and West)	286	"
Galerius, Constantius (joint emperors)	305	"
Constantine the Great	306	"
Christianity made the religion of the empire	313	"
Constantine sole emperor (all of his rivals put down)	323	"
Byzantium made the capital of the empire; renamed Constantinople	328	"
Constantine II., Constantius II., Constans (joint emperors)	337	"
Constantius II.	353	"
Julian (surnamed the Apostate for seeking to restore the heathen worship)	361	"

Jovian	363	A.D.
Valentinian I. } (joint emperors) Valens }	364	"
Gratian } (joint emperors) Valentinian II. }	375	"
The Huns appear; the Goths cross the Danube into the empire	376	"
Valentinian II.	383	"
The Goths enlisted in the army	388	
Theodosius the Great (emperor of the East, 379), sole emperor	392	"
Arcadius (emperor of the East } Honorius (emperor of the West }	395	"

EMPERORS OF THE WEST.

Honorius	395	"
Italy invaded by the Goths	400	"
Stilicho defeats the Goths and has a triumph (the last seen at Rome)	404	"
Stilicho is executed; the Goths under Alaric take and plunder Rome	410	"
Valentinian III.	425	"
The Vandals invade Africa; take Carthage	439	"
Attila and the Huns defeated at Châlons	451	"
Maximus; Avitus	455	"
The Vandals take and sack Rome	455	"
Majorian	457	"
Libius Severus	461	"
Arethemius	467	"
Olybrius	472	"
Glycerius	473	"
Julius Nepos	474	"
Romulus Augustulus (the last emperor)	475	"
Odoacer becomes King of Italy	476	"

PART II

MEDIÆVAL HISTORY

SECTION I.—THE DARK AGES

INTRODUCTION

Civilization in Peril.—We are now about to deal with one of the most remarkable periods in the history of the world. For several thousand years civilization had been growing and spreading over the fertile region of the South, but now it was suddenly swept away as if by a terrible flood, and it seemed as if all the work of these thousands of busy years had to be done over again.

A Great Harvest-Field.—You have read the story of the long growth of civilization, how it arose on the banks of the Euphrates and the Nile and spread to Greece and Rome. The Roman Empire was like a great harvest-field, in which the fruit of the labors of mankind during many centuries seemed ripe and ready to be reaped for the good of the human race.

The South and the North.—Here let us stop and look around and see what was the real state of the world in ancient times. If we look on a map of that period we shall see that the civilized states were confined to the south of Europe and parts of southern Asia and northern Africa. Over all the rest of the world darkness spread. North of

the realm of civilized man was a vast region in which dwelt only barbarians and savages. Rome had tried in vain to conquer these people, for, while they were very ignorant, they were fierce and warlike, and they were destined in the end to conquer Rome.

A Human Avalanche.—Most of you must have read of how great masses of snow will gather for years on the mountain-tops of Switzerland, and then pour down in frightful avalanches on the smiling country below. The wild tribes of the north were like an avalanche that hung over Rome, and the time was sure to come when they would fall in overwhelming force on the proud empire which had so long held them back.

The Conquering Races.—Let us see who these people were. They belonged to two of the great races of mankind, the Aryan and the Turanian. You have been told about these in our opening chapter. The Huns who did such terrible work in Europe under Attila were Turanians, and came from the vast cattle-raising plains of northern Asia. They were the most savage and frightful people the Romans had ever seen. The tribes of Europe were Aryans, and belonged to the same race as the Greeks and Romans themselves.

The Aryans of Europe.—In the west of Europe were the Celts (Kelts). To these belonged the Gauls, who had taken and burned Rome in its early days. Later on they were conquered and brought under Roman rule. In the east were the Slavs, or Slavo'nians, who were too far away to have much to do with Rome. In the central region were the Teutons (Tu'tons), of whom there were several divisions, each with its own language. It is with these that we are here concerned.

The Teutonic Tribes.—Of the Teuton'ic tribes we may name the Goths, including the Os'trogoths (Eastern Goths) and the Vis'igoths (Western Goths); the Van'dals, who won a kingdom in Northern Africa; the Lom'bards, who conquered the north of Italy; the Franks, who became masters of Gaul; and the An'gles and Sax'ons, who took possession of the island of Britain. Farther north were the Norse'men or Northmen, who were to play a great part in later times.

Rome and the Barbarians.—In the history of Rome you have read about the dealings between the Romans and the wild tribes. You will remember how Brennus with his Gauls conquered and burned Rome; how Marius defeated and destroyed the hordes of Cimbri and Teutons; how Cæsar conquered the country of the Gauls; and how Hermann, the great Teutonic chief, cut to pieces a Roman army in the German woods.

The Wealth of Rome.—As time passed on, the Romans grew weak and the barbarians grew strong. Many of them served in the Roman armies and learned there the art of war. And they told in their native wilds the story of the riches of Rome, while the warriors clashed their swords against their shields and asked to be led to the plunder of those rich and splendid cities.

The Huns, Goths, and Vandals.—Our later chapters told you how these wild tribesmen were led to the conquest of Rome; how the savage Huns poured over Europe, burning and destroying; how the Goths under Alaric and the Vandals under Genseric took and plundered Rome; and how other tribes sought their share of the spoil of the ruined empire. But the Goths and Vandals did not destroy the great city, as the frightful Huns might have done. They

had listened to the missionaries and become Christians; so, while they robbed Rome of its wealth, they did not sweep it from the earth.

A Flood of Barbarism.—Was it not a dreadful thing to see barbarism pouring in a flood over the land of culture and progress? Rome had done many bad things, but it was the centre of the civilized world, and when it fell it seemed as if all the work of the ages was lost and the gloom of ignorance and barbarity would again spread for many centuries over all the earth.

The Dark Ages.—The period that followed has been called the "Dark Ages." It was well named, for it was an age of dense ignorance, superstition, vice, and crime, in which all the arts and customs of civilization seemed to have vanished. It continued for several centuries, and the philosophers of that period, if there were any of them, might well have lost all hope for the future of mankind.

Civilization not lost.—Such was the outlook, but things were not as bad as they appeared. Civilization was not lost, it was only checked. The arts of Greece and Rome existed still and would in time be revived. The way in which the Romans had governed their vast empire was admired by their conquerors, who tried to imitate it, and thus the art of government was preserved. The laws of Rome were not forgotten, and would in time give rise to the laws of Europe. Constantinople held much of the art and literature of Greece and Rome, and kept them for the later world. Better than all, Christianity was preserved and soon began to make its way among the victorious tribes. While the emperor of Rome had vanished, the bishop or pope of Rome remained, with power and influence all over the world. So the old civilization was not lost. It was sure

to come back again, among fresh and sturdy peoples, who would raise it to a higher level than ever before.

The Problem of Progress.—This is the problem we have now to deal with. We have traced ancient civilization from its origin to its fall. Now we must take up the story of the new peoples who were occupying the place of the old and growing from tribes into nations. The process was a slow but a sure one. We have to show how these nations grew and strengthened; how they met and dealt with fresh barbarian invasions; how the forces of barbarism gradually wore out and civilization spread far and wide; how, in the end, the seed that was planted ages before on the banks of the Euphrates and the Nile grew into a mighty tree, whose branches overspread all Europe and most of the world besides.

CHAPTER I

THE INVASIONS OF THE TEUTONS

The Progress of History.—In dealing with modern history we cannot take up one great empire after another, each of them the lord of the civilized earth, as was the case in ancient times; but we have to do with a large number of separate nations, each with a history of its own. At first, indeed, there were no settled nations, but a confused mixture of tribes, and lordships, and small kingdoms, which would surely grow into strong nations. So we cannot move in a straight line as hitherto, but must take up several lines in succession. This makes the work before us more difficult.

The First Italian King.—When Rome fell, and Odoa'cer, the Gothic chief, became King of Italy, all the Roman Empire was not at an end. The Eastern Empire remained, with Constantinople for its capital, and Odoacer reigned as viceroy of the emperor Zeno. But we cannot say that the barbarian king troubled himself much about the emperor, whose power was only the shadow of that of the old Roman sovereigns.

Theodoric conquers Italy.—Odoacer did not reign very long. He was a chief of the Visigoths, whose kindred, the Ostrogoths, soon invaded Italy, under a great chief named Theod'oric. They came bag and baggage, the soldiers bringing their wives, children, and parents in a multitude of wagons, prepared to settle in the new land. Odoacer fought bravely for his throne, and it took four years to conquer him, but in the end Theodoric became king of all Italy. He


EUROPE
showing the
ROMAN EMPIRE
in the
FIFTH CENTURY
Scale of Miles
0 100 200 300 400
Longitude East from Ferro
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
BLACK SEA
HIBERNIA
SCOTS
PICTS
ANGLO-SAXONS
DANES
JUTES
FRISIANS
SAXONS
THURINGIANS
FINNISH TRIBES
SLAVONIAN TRIBES
HUNNIC TRIBES
FRANKS
KINGDOM OF SYAGRIUS
BRITANNIA MINOR
ALEMANNI
RUGII
LANGOBARDS
NORICUM
PANNONIA
RHÆTIA
GEPIDES
BURGUNDIANS
AQUITANIA I.
AQUITANIA II.
GALLÆCIA
CANTABRIANS
VASCONNES
PROVENCE
KINGDOM OF ODOACER
NERON. DALMATIA
VISIGOTHS
OSTROGOTHS
EASTERN EMPIRE
THRACE
PONTUS
ROMAN EMPIRE
CORSICA
SARDINIA
BALEARIC IS.
SICILY
VANDALS
VANDALATIA
Novgorod
Volga R.
Vistula R.
Oder R.
Elbe R.
Rhine R.
Dnieper R.
Don R.
Loire R.
Danube R.
London
York
Paris
Orleans
Strassburg
Cologne
Lorch
Bordeaux
Lyons
Langres
Aquileia
Venice
Genoa
Florence
Ravenna
Rome
Marseilles
Barcelona
Lisbon
Valentia
Cadiz
Tingis
Hispalis
Cartagena
Hippo Regius
Utica
Carthage
Palermo
Syracuse
Naples
Cosenza
Tarentum
Thessalonica
Athens
Smyrna
Constantinople
Nicomedia
Novæ
Tomi
Portus Cale
C.S.H. & CO. N.Y.

made Raven'na his capital in 493; but in 500 he set up his throne in the old city of Rome.

The Reign of Theodoric.—Theodoric was a wise and noble monarch. He reigned thirty-three years (493–526) and proved so just and able that he was called Theodoric the Great. He gave one-third of the land to his soldiers, but the old inhabitants were not oppressed, and his wise reign brought peace and prosperity to all the people. The laws which he made were so well kept that it came to be said, "A purse of gold might be safely left in the fields." Many centuries passed before Italy knew another king like Theodoric the barbarian.

The Emperor Justinian.—After Theodoric died, Italy became a scene of war, bloodshed, and ruin. The next year (527) a famous king, Justin'ian, came to the throne in Constantinople, and reigned with much glory and honor for thirty-eight years. He it was who made the great code of Roman laws of which we have spoken. He also tried hard to drive the Goths out of Italy and win back the Western Empire.

The Victories of Belisarius.—Justinian had two great soldiers to lead his armies, Belisa'rius and Nar'ses. Belisarius led an army to Africa and drove the Vandals out of Carthage and the adjoining country. Then he conquered Sicily and entered Italy, where he defeated the Goths and drove them away.

Totila and Narses.—But the Goths were soon back again under their king, Tot'ila, who took Rome, and might have destroyed it but for Narses, another of Justinian's generals. Narses defeated the Goths with great slaughter, and conquered Italy for the emperor, who set him to rule it under the title of Exarch of Italy. Thus for a time the Eastern and Western empires were reunited.

The Coming of the Lombards.—Three years after Justinian died another Teutonic horde came from Germany, called the Lom'bards, from the Latin word for long beards, or perhaps for long battle-axes. They swept down into Italy, where they committed great ravages and treated the people cruelly. Some of the Italians fled from them to the islands at the head of the Adriat'ic Sea, and here in time grew up the famous commercial city of Ven'ice.

The Lombard Kingdom.—The Lombards settled down in the broad district called Lombardy, making Pa'via their capital (568). But they did not annex the whole of Italy, for Rome, Ravenna, Venice, and much of the central and southern country was still held by the exarchs, who ruled for the emperor of the East. For more than two hundred years Italy was divided between these two powers. Then in 774 came Charlemagne and took the last Lombard king prisoner and brought the Lombard rule to an end.

The Advent of the Tribes.—Now let us look at the west and see what was taking place there. When the Goths under Alaric were in Italy and Rome was in its death struggle all the Roman soldiers were withdrawn from Britain and most of them from Gaul for the defence of Italy. Soon the wild tribes of Scotland were over the Roman wall and pillaging the cities of the south, whose people had forgotten how to fight. Over the Rhine came hordes known as Vandals, Sue'vi, Burgun'dians, and by other names, to the conquest of Gaul and Spain. The Burgundians settled in eastern Gaul, in the district still known as Bur'gundy. The Vandals pushed on into Spain, and settled the province now known as Andalu'sia. But they soon crossed into Africa and formed a Vandal kingdom there. After the death of Alaric the Goths left Italy for Gaul and Spain, and about

the year 414 they founded in Spain what was long known as the Kingdom of the Visigoths. We shall read more about them later on.

Clovis and the Franks.—The most famous of these invading peoples were the Franks, who gave the name of France to the ancient country of Gaul. Frank means *freeman*, and the Franks were made up of several tribes who lived near the lower Rhine, and who gave Rome a good deal of trouble two hundred years before its fall. In the year 486, when Rome had fallen and Odoacer was King of Italy, a bold and daring chief of the Franks named Clo'vis led an army of his fellow-tribesmen into Gaul. Here he met the last of the Roman governors at a place named Soissons and defeated him. Then he began to win victories in all parts of Gaul.

The Vase of Soissons.—There is an anecdote about Clovis which shows what kind of a man he was. After the battle of Soissons, Clovis asked his followers to give him a beautiful vase as his part of the spoil. One of his men objected to this, as it was the rule to divide the booty by lot, and to end the dispute he broke the vase with his battle-axe. Clovis was very angry, but he kept quiet and bided his time. Some time after, when the troops were under review, he approached this man, blamed him severely for not keeping his armor bright, and cleft his head with a battle-axe, crying out, "Thus you did to the vase of Soissons!"

Clovis becomes a Christian.—They were savages who did things like that, but Clovis was a bold savage and an able one. The Franks were heathens, but Clovis married a Christian woman named Clotil'da, and soon became a Christian himself. We are told that when he was fighting with a German tribe called the Aleman'ni he was in great danger

of defeat. He made a vow that, if he won the victory, he would become a Christian. Soon the tide of battle turned, the king of the Alemanni was killed and his army defeated. Clovis did not forget his vow, but was baptized in the



THE VASE OF SOISSONS.

Cathedral at Rheims. After that time it was the custom to crown and consecrate the kings of France, while France remained a kingdom, in that ancient cathedral.

The Descendants of Clovis.—Before Clovis died he was master of nearly the whole of Gaul. He fixed his capital at Lute'tia, a mud village on the river Seine. This has since been known as Paris, and has always remained the capital of France. The descendants of Clovis were called Merovin'gians,

after Merovæ'us, one of their ancestors. They held the throne for more than two hundred and fifty years, but they were cruel and vicious and committed many dreadful crimes in their constant quarrels, for the country was divided up between them. There were some bold kings among them, but the most of them were so weak and worthless that the people called them "Do-nothings," and in time all the power came to be held by a great officer called the Mayor of the Palace.

Charles Martel and Pepin.—One of these mayors, named Charles Martel', became famous for a great victory he won over the Saracens. You will read about this victory later on. His son, Pep'in, was a brave soldier, and fought in Italy against the Lombards for the Pope, who sent him word that he had the power of a king and ought to have the name. So Pepin took Chil'peric, the last of the do-nothing kings, cut off the long yellow hair on which he prided himself, and shut him up in a convent. Then, in the year 752, Pepin was crowned King of France. His son was the famous Charlemagne, (char'le-mane) or Charles the Great, from whom this line of kings was called the Carlovin'gian.

The New Kingdoms.—You have seen how the Roman Empire went to pieces in the west and the barbarians founded new kingdoms in Italy, France, Spain, and Africa. The same took place in the island of Britain, as we shall now see.

The Romans in Britain.—In modern times Britain has been very famous, it being known as England in the south and Scotland in the north, but when Julius Cæsar landed there it was peopled by rude and barbarous tribes. When Claudius was emperor, about the year 50 A.D., the southern part of the island was conquered by the Romans, who afterwards built walls across it to keep out the wild northern tribes of Picts and Scots.

The Britons are civilized.—The Romans stayed in Britain nearly four hundred years. They constructed paved roads and built walled towns and baths and theatres, and many of the wild natives became civilized Christians, whose young men studied Latin and prided themselves on the Roman manners and customs. The Romans did the fighting, and the British became peaceful and feeble.

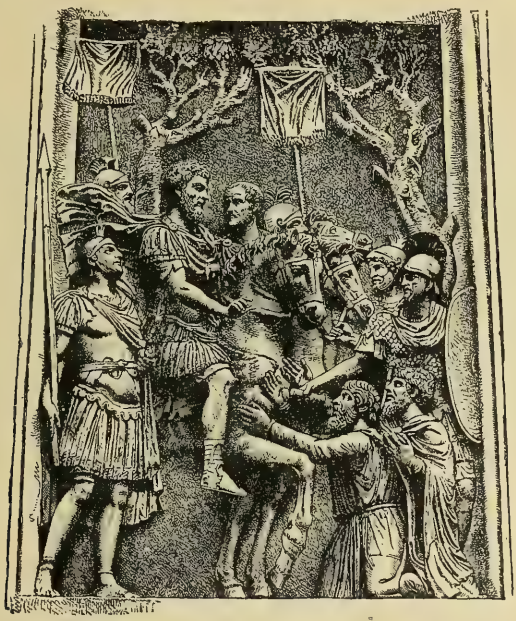
The Angles and Saxons.—This was all very well while the Romans were there. But when they left the island and the savage Picts swarmed over the Roman wall and attacked their towns the poor Britons were helpless to defend themselves. Off the coast were some Saxon sea-rovers, whose chiefs were named Hengist and Horsa. The unfortunate people asked their aid against the terrible Picts, which they were very ready to give, but when they had driven back the Picts they seized the land for themselves. Many other boatloads came, mostly Angles (English) and Saxons. These were fierce heathens, who killed all that opposed them, and soon held all the south of the island except the mountain region of Wales, to which the Britons fled. Various small kingdoms were formed on English soil, and for long years fighting went on between them, but in the year 827 King Egbert combined them all into one, which he called England. He was a friend of Charlemagne, who then ruled in France. Long before that the Anglo-Saxon people of England had become Christians.

The Later Tribes.—It was in this way that the tribes of the north became the masters of the old Roman Empire. There were others of them still to come from their forest wilds and seize their share of the land, of which the chief were the Danes and Norsemen, the terrible sea-rovers of the far north. The tale of their doings will be told later.

CHAPTER II

THE PERSIAN AND EASTERN EMPIRES

Now let us for a time go back to the east and see what was going on there. The history of Asia and eastern



HOMAGE OF THE PARTHIANS TO MARCUS AURELIUS.

Europe at this period was not very important and need not keep us very long, but we must give it some attention.

The Valor of the Parthians.—In the history of Rome some mention was made of the Parthians. These were a

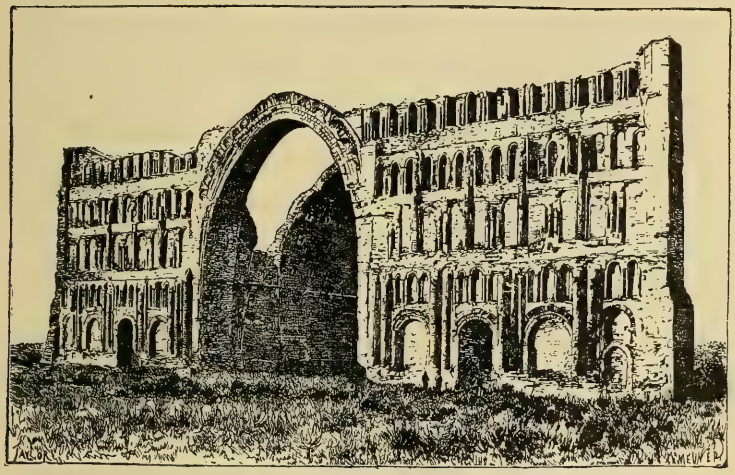
Turanian people of Asia, who gained their freedom when the empire of Alexander began to break up, and in time became masters of a great part of southern Asia. For five centuries they retained their power, and Rome tried in vain to conquer them. You have read how they defeated Crassus and his army in 52 B.C. Many of them belonged to the wandering shepherd tribes, and they were fine horsemen and famous for their mounted archers, who, even when retreating at full speed, could shoot their arrows backward with deadly effect.

The New Persian Empire.—You will remember the Persians, who were at one time so mighty and powerful, and at length were conquered by Alexander the Great. Afterwards they became subjects of the Parthians. But in 226 A.D. they broke out in rebellion and won back their liberty, and a new Persian kingdom was established, which was called the Sassan'ian. It continued to exist for more than four centuries, taking the place of the Parthian kingdom, which it had overthrown. The Persians held their own bravely against the Roman armies, which they often defeated. In 260 A.D. the Persian king Sapor defeated Valerian, the Roman emperor, and took him prisoner. It is said he used his great captive as a footstool, putting his foot on him when he mounted his horse. Think of an emperor of Rome being treated in this shameful way.

Two Famous Persian Kings.—The greatest of the new Persian kings was Chos'roes or Khos'ru I., who began to reign in 531. He was famous as a statesman and warrior, and defeated the armies of Justinian so often that the emperor was forced to bribe him with thirty thousand pieces of gold. His grandson, Chosroes II., was also an able warrior, who conquered all Syria, Egypt, and Asia Minor from

the Eastern Empire, and led his armies to the very gates of Constantinople. He took what was called the True Cross from the church at Jerusalem and carried it to Persia.

Heraclius and Chosroes.—You may see that the Eastern Empire of Rome was in serious danger of being overthrown as the Western Empire had been. But by good fortune there came to the throne an able emperor, named Heracli'us, who



REMAINS OF THE ARCH OF CHOSROES AT CTESIPHON.

reigned from 610 to 641. You have been told how the Romans forced Hannibal to leave Italy, by carrying the war into Africa. Heraclius took the same plan. He led a small body of picked men into Persia, where he did so much damage that Chosroes had to hasten back to save his country. While in Persia Heraclius recovered the True Cross, which he took back to Jerusalem.

The Battle of Nineveh.—In the year 627 the armies of Heraclius and Chosroes met on the spot where the great

Assyrian city of Nineveh had once stood, and fought a terrible battle around its ruins. When it ended the Persian army was not only defeated, but almost cut to pieces. Chosroes saw the great empire he had built up brought to ruin in a day, and so great was his grief that in a few days he died, though some say that he was assassinated.

The Coming of the Arabians.—In a few years more the new Persian Empire came to an end in a way that we shall tell in our next chapter. We can only say here that the Arabians, the followers of the prophet Mohammed, came from their desert and conquered Syria and Persia. Like Chosroes, they overran Asia Minor and led their armies to the gates of Constantinople. So Heraclius, who had driven the Persians from these regions, saw them lost again to the Arabians. He took the True Cross, which he had brought back to Jerusalem, to Constantinople, and bade a sad farewell to Syria.

The Greek Empire.—From that time on the Eastern Empire was not of much importance. It had lost all its great possessions in Asia and Africa, and there was nothing Roman left in it. So after this it may best be called the Greek Empire, for its people were chiefly Greeks, and Constantinople became like a Greek city in its manners and customs. There is nothing more worth saying about it till the time of the Crusades.

The Barbarian Outflow.—Before we leave this part of our subject it is well to speak briefly about the doings of the wild tribes of the north and east. You have read about the Teutonic tribes of Europe,—how they poured down like an overwhelming flood and took possession of the Roman Empire of the West. During the same period the tribes of Russia and Asia were as fierce and active, and the empire

of the East had to fight hard for its life. It seems as if, at this period, the barbarism in the north was like a great lake, which overflowed its banks and poured out its devastating waters over the whole realm of civilization in the south. When the torrent ended civilization had nearly disappeared.

Belisarius and the Barbarians.—You may call to mind how the great general Belisarius defeated the Goths in Italy. When he was an old man this famous general had to defend Constantinople against a horde of barbarians from the north. It was made up of the tribes known as Slavo'nians and Bulga'rians, from Russia and Asia, who did terrible damage to the empire until they were defeated by the aged hero.

The Terrible Magyars.—Various other barbarous tribes gave trouble to the emperors at Constantinople, but the most formidable invasion of Europe was that of the Magyars (Mod'yors), or Hunga'rians, who were of the same race as the Huns, the terrible followers of Attila. Coming in 889, they defeated the Bulgarians and put Constantinople in peril. Then they swept across Germany to the Rhine, coming again and again, and committing such cruel ravages that the people said they were cannibals and drank the blood of their enemies. Wherever they went they killed all they met. In the end they were defeated by the German emperors and settled down quietly in Hungary, which they made their home. After that they became Christians, and were of great service to Europe in keeping back the Asiatic tribes that followed in their track.

The Turks and the Mongols.—We may here speak, in passing, of two other hordes of Asiatic invaders, the most important of them all. The first of these were the Turks, who came from the region of the Altai Mountains, in Central

Asia, and overran all the south of Asia and in time conquered Constantinople and the Greek Empire. The second were the Mongols, who came from the country now known as Chinese Tartary and committed the most frightful ravages in Asia and Russia. These people had long dwelt on the vast steppes or elevated and partly barren regions of the centre and north of Asia, wandering from pasture to pasture with their herds of cattle, horses, sheep, and camels, and living the peaceful life of shepherds. But when they invaded the south with their hordes of daring and furious horsemen, they slaughtered millions of the people and destroyed hundreds of cities, making deserts of fertile and populous realms. We merely speak of them here; the story of their migrations and wars belongs to a later time.

CHAPTER III

THE EMPIRE OF THE SARACENS

The Peninsula of Arabia.—In the southwestern corner of Asia lies a great peninsula, bounded by the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf, and very largely made up of a desert of sand, in the midst of which are large and fertile oases. During all the history of ancient times we hear little of this peninsula, though it lay near the civilized lands of Egypt and Babylonia. Its people were largely wandering shepherds, who did not make history. But in the seventh century of the Christian era it rose suddenly from its obscurity, and the people of the surrounding nations beheld with surprise and dismay a horde of fanatical warriors pouring out of this realm of sand and setting out to the conquest of the world. It was as when a devouring fire breaks out in a house that was thought safe from all danger.

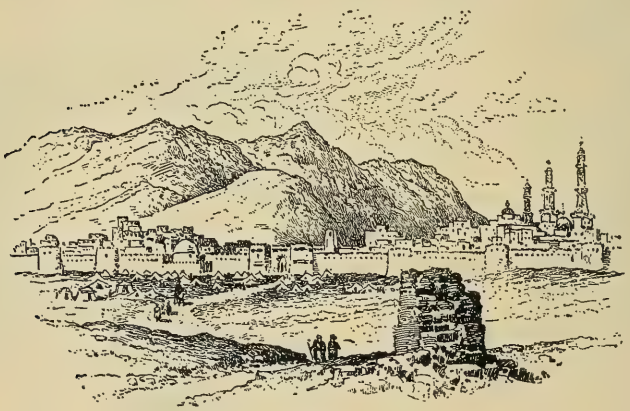


MOHAMMED, THE ARAB PROPHET.

Mohammed and his Mission.—About the year 570 a man named Moham'med was born in Mecca, the holy city of Arabia. Like most of his people he could not read or write. And he spent many years as a wandering merchant.

But he was very religious and studied and thought deeply, and after he was forty years of age he became a great religious teacher. He said that the Jewish and Christian religions both came from God, but that the angel Gabriel had appeared to him and taught him a new and more perfect religion, which he was commanded to teach to mankind. His sayings were written down from time to time, and formed a book named the Ko'ran, which has ever since been the holy book of the Mohammedans.

Mohammed's Enemies.—The idol-worshipping Arabians were not very ready to take up the doctrines of the new prophet. It took him years to get together a few disciples.



MEDINA.

In the year 622 his enemies forced him to flee from Mecca, and he made his way to Medi'na, where he found a number of believers.

Conversion by the Sword.—Mohammed now made up his mind that if men could not be converted by preaching they might be by fighting. He said, "The sword is the key

of heaven and hell," and he set out to prove it. He began to attack and plunder caravans. Then, as his disciples grew numerous, the desert tribes were attacked and subdued. His wild followers were told that all who fell in battle would go straight to the joys of Paradise, and they fought without fear of death. In ten years he made himself master of all the tribes and spread his new religion through all Arabia. Then, in 632, he died just as he was preparing to go out and convert the surrounding countries by the power of the sword. He was one of the great men who make history.

The Caliphs.—"There is but one God, and Mohammed is his prophet," was now the war-cry of the Arabians. Mohammed was succeeded by rulers called Ca'liphs, the first of whom was Abu-bekr, his father-in-law. The prophet was not long dead when the believers in his new faith emerged, cimeter in hand, from their desert land and fell in fury on the neighboring countries, to conquer and convert.

Omar enters Jerusalem.—Syria and Mesopotamia were quickly overrun by the desert warriors, who were victorious everywhere. Into Jerusalem rode Omar, the second caliph, on a red-haired camel, carrying a bag of rice and one of dates, and a leather bottle of water. No thought of luxury had yet entered the minds of these stern and hardy sons of the Arabian sands.

Persia is conquered.—Never was a new religion extended more rapidly or a new and vast empire built up more quickly. Persia was the next country conquered, and then the Arabs crossed the mountain wall of the north and taught their new religion to the Turks. These fierce tribes were to become its greatest upholders in future time.

The Library of Alexandria.—The desert warriors next invaded and conquered Egypt. When Alexandria was taken,

Amrou, the Arabian leader in this war, wrote to the caliph, Omar, about the great library of that city, with its hundreds of thousands of books, and asked what he should do with them. Omar, to whom there was only one book worth having, the Koran, wrote back: "If these books agree with the Koran, they are useless; if they do not agree with it, they are false and dangerous; in either case they ought to be destroyed." So these priceless manuscripts were sent to the four thousand baths of the city, whose flames they fed for six months. Of the truth of this story we are not quite sure, for some writers say that this library was destroyed before that time.

Egypt and Africa.—From Egypt the conquering Arabians —or Sar'acens, as they were called—marched steadily westward through northern Africa. Here they had hard fighting to do, but step by step they went on, conquering cities and countries, till they had borne the banner of the Crescent to the Straits of Gibraltar. Their leader now spurred his horse into the waters of the Atlantic, saying that his zeal had not failed, but that there was no more land for his courage to subdue.

Constantinople and the Greek Fire.—It took the Saracens many years to conquer northern Africa, for they had the fierce Moors of the desert to fight, and also the sturdy Gothic warriors, who crossed from Italy and Spain to fight for Africa. The Greek Empire was more fortunate. For seven years a strong army of Saracens besieged Constantinople, but its defenders poured on them flaming torrents of the terrible Greek fire, and they found themselves baffled. This fire was made of naphtha, sulphur, and pitch, which was blown flaming through hollow tubes, or hurled in red-hot iron balls.

The Saracen Repulse.—Forty years later the Saracens came back, with a powerful force, and for thirteen months attacked the strong walls of Constantinople. But the emperor, Leo III., fought them bravely, and in the end an army of Bulgarians defeated them with immense slaughter.

Building a Great Empire.—While this was going on, the Saracens were extending their empire elsewhere. From Persia their warriors rode far eastward, never halting till they reached the banks of the Indus River in India. In the



THE ROCK OF GIBRALTAR.

west an army of them crossed from Africa into Spain over the narrow Straits of Gibraltar. It was the first step they had taken into Europe, and soon they were fighting fiercely in that continent.

The Conquest of Spain.—Spain at that time, as you have been told, was the seat of a kingdom of the Visigoths, who had come there three centuries before after the conquest of Rome. Roderick, the last king of this people, met the Saracens at Xeres (Ze′res), but was defeated and killed,

and the fierce desert warriors quickly made themselves the lords and masters of Spain. All that was left to the Goths was a small mountain district in the northwest, in which they held their own and defied their enemies.

The Battle of Tours.—The warriors of the Crescent banner were not satisfied with Spain. They wanted to conquer all southern Europe and force the people to accept the religion of Mohammed and the Koran. Crossing the Pyrenees Mountains into France, they filled all Christendom with alarm. In this great peril, Charles, the Mayor of the Palace at Paris, met them with a strong army of Franks, and for seven days a desperate battle was fought on the plain of Tours. Never had the Saracens met with such valiant warriors. Terrible and long continued was the conflict, but on the seventh day their leader fell in the thick of the fight and they were driven back with frightful slaughter. So great was their loss that they never again attempted to conquer France.



CHARLES MARTEL.

Charles Martel's Famous Victory.—All Europe was filled with joy when it heard of this famous victory, for many had feared that the desert fighters were invincible. Charles was called Martel, or the Hammer, in honor of the sturdy blow he had given the infidel hordes. The battle of Tours was fought in 732, exactly one hundred years after Mohammed died. In that century the Saracen Empire had

spread from India to the Atlantic. No empire before had ever gained so great a width.

The Capitals of the Caliphs.—For a time one caliph governed this mighty empire, fixing his capital at Damas'cus, in Syria, and making his power felt from India to Spain. But there came disputes and wars and secessions, and after 755 there were two caliphs, one in Spain and one in Bag'dad, a new city built on the Tigris River, not far from the site of the famous old Babylon. Later on there was another caliph in the city of Cairo (Ki'ro), in Egypt.

Centuries of Dominion.—The Arabs had come to Spain to stay. Their kingdom lasted for seven hundred years. But the Moors of Africa in time took the place of the pure Arabs, and their kingdom became known as the Moorish. In Bagdad the empire of the Saracens held its own for five hundred years, and then the Turks and Mongols of the north came down and made themselves its master.

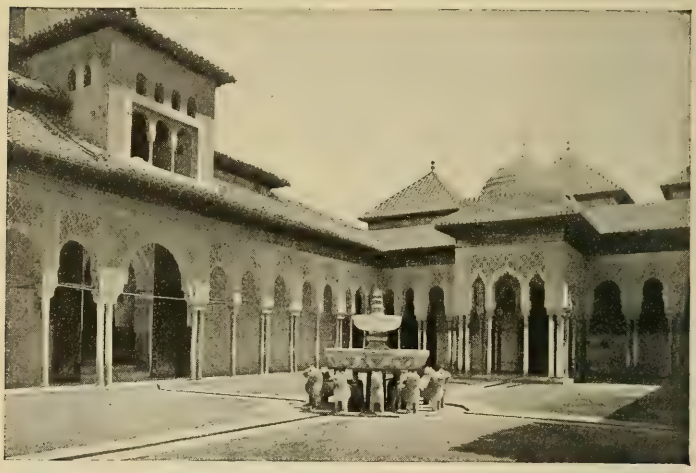
Haroun-al-Raschid.—Of the caliphs of Bagdad the most famous was Haroun'-al-Rasch'id, who came to the throne in 786, in the days of Charlemagne, and in whose reign the Saracen realm reached its height of glory. Every boy who has read that wonderful collection of fairy-tales called the "Arabian Nights" must know something about this great prince, for he is the hero of many of its stories.

THE SARACEN CIVILIZATION.

A Rapid Growth of Civilization.—The history of the Saracen conquest is one of great interest and importance, but that of the Saracen civilization is quite as important. When the Arabs came from their desert they were a different people from the ignorant barbarians of the north. Poetry had long been cultivated among them, and in their

history we hear of no "Dark Age," like that of the Teuton conquerors of Europe. As soon as their century of conquest was over they settled down to the cultivation of literature, art, and science, and they developed a splendid and flourishing civilization while all around them, except in Constantinople and Greece, dense ignorance and the rudest manners prevailed.

The Moorish Architecture.—All through the land of the Moors and the Saracens beautiful buildings arose, of a new



COURT OF LIONS OF THE ALHAMBRA.

style of architecture, wonderfully light and graceful. In Spain there is nothing more charming than the Mosque of Cor'dova and the Alham'bra Palace, the work of Moorish builders. The streets of their cities were well paved and lighted, while the other cities of Europe were beds of filth, darkness, and vice. Their houses were carpeted and beautifully furnished, and warmed in the winter by furnaces, and

the Europeans who visited Spain thought themselves almost in fairy-land.

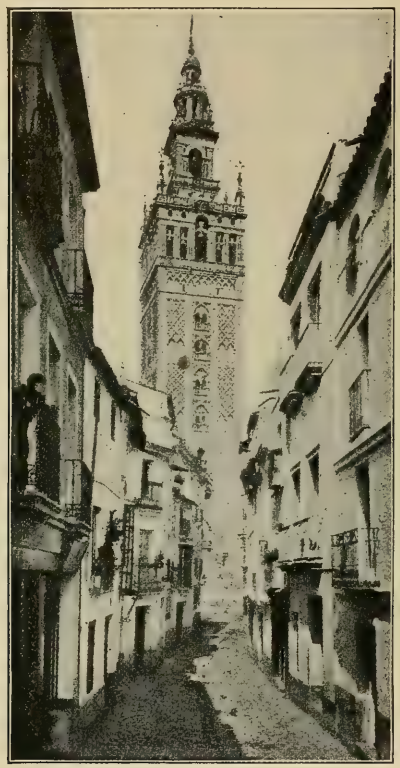
The Saracen Libraries.—Cairo and Bagdad were as splendid as Cor'dova and Grana'da. The magnificent buildings of Bagdad have long since vanished, but the "Arabian Nights'" stories take us back into the midst of its grandeur. It was the home of poets and scholars, as were all the great Saracen cities. We are told that the library at Cairo held one hundred thousand volumes, and that at Cordova six hundred thousand volumes, and that a physician who was asked by the sultan to go to Bokha'ra declined, saying that it would take four hundred camels to carry his books. This was a different state of affairs from the days when the Caliph Omar ordered the Alexandrian library to be burned as useless or dangerous.

An Empire of Schools.—What a treasure this great library would have been to the Arabian scholars of later days, for they became ardent students of Greek literature. They especially studied the writings of Aristotle, and became active in philosophy and science. While there was scarcely a school in Christian Europe, their country was full of schools, and there were thriving colleges in a dozen cities, to which earnest scholars came from all parts of the Mohammedan world.

Progress in Science.—It is wonderful what progress these Saracens made in science, in an age when science was almost unknown elsewhere. They were the fathers of chemistry, and discovered alcohol and sulphuric acid and many other chemical substances. They were deep students also in astronomy and physics and mathematics, and our method of counting we owe to them. They brought it from India. They knew the laws of falling bodies, of specific

gravity, of the mechanical powers, and of other sciences of which their neighbors in Europe did not dream.

Merchants and Manufacturers.—The Saracens also became active merchants and manufacturers. They worked



A Street in Seville and the Giralda.

the old silver-mines of Spain and took great treasure from them. There were nowhere their equals in weaving and dyeing, in the manufacture of silk, cotton, leather, and silverware, and everything needed for comfort and luxury. They

were also the great merchants of their time. Their caravans went far into the north, the east, and the west, carrying rich goods to exchange for the products of other lands. Their ships were everywhere on the waters of the Mediterranean and southern Asia, and their commercial cities became great centres of wealth and industry.

A Striking Contrast.—Such was the civilization which the Saracens built up in a few centuries after leaving their wild life in the desert. It was a rich and splendid one, and its glory was in strange contrast with the gloom of Europe, for at that time all Europe except Saracen Spain was plunged in the depths of ignorance, superstition, and vice, which has been well named the Dark Ages. While it gave little that was new to the world, it did much to save from ruin the treasures of the civilization of the past and the philosophy and science of ancient Greece.

CHAPTER IV

THE EMPIRE OF CHARLEMAGNE

The Empire in the Eighth Century.—When the eighth century neared its end, the continent of Europe was not at all like what we find it to-day. In place of the present kingdoms and empires, there was nothing fixed and stable. In the east was the little that was left of the old Roman Empire, a weak and sickly sort of government. Italy was held by the Lombards in the north, while the emperors at Constantinople still ruled over the south. Spain had been conquered from the Goths and was part of the empire of the Saracens. As for France, it had not yet become a distinct kingdom, for its rulers were Germans, and there was little separation between France and Germany. But near the middle of the century there was born a man who was to make a remarkable change in European affairs.

Three Great Men.—Three great men came in succession, Charles Martel, the Mayor of the Palace, who won the great victory at Tours; his son, Pepin the Short, who took the crown from the feeble King of the Franks, and his grandson Charles, who has since been known as Charlemagne, or Charles the Great, and who was one of the most famous monarchs of history.

Charles the Great.—Charles was born in 742, and became king when his father died in 768. His brother Carloman ruled with him for a time, but he soon died and left Charles as sole king. This great monarch reigned for nearly half a century, and his reign was so full of wars and con-

quests that at his death he ruled over a great part of western Europe. He made no less than fifty-two military campaigns, nearly all of them successful, and he proved himself as great a statesman as he was a soldier.



CHARLEMAGNE.
(From a sixteenth century engraving.)

Charlemagne a Teuton.—We cannot call Charlemagne a Frenchman, for in his time the Frenchman of to-day did not exist, and his kingdom was made up of parts of what we now call France and Germany. He was a Teuton in speech and character, and much of his life was spent in spreading his empire over the Teutonic soil.

The Conquest of Saxony.—The most important of the wars of Charlemagne were those with the uncivilized tribes and nations of the north. These people were still pressing on the south, and those who had come first had to fight with those who came later. Most of the wars of Charlemagne were with the Saxons, who were still pagans, and were very brave and warlike. For more than thirty years he fought with them. He won many victories over these people, but as soon as his back was turned they were in arms again, and he was kept busy defeating them. At one time, furious at their obstinacy, he caused four thousand five hundred of his prisoners to be massacred. That was a very cruel act, and it could not have done him any good. But at last the Saxons gave up, and he had them all baptized as Christians, and added their country to his empire.

Hungary conquered.—Charlemagne also had wars with the Bavarians, and their allies the Avars, who lived in what is now called Hungary. He conquered them and annexed

their countries. By these victories he brought all Germany under his power, and put an end to the invasions of the tribes, which had been going on so long.

War with the Saracens.—Charlemagne also led an army into Spain, where he fought with the Saracens and captured the countries of Ar′agon and Navarre′. But on his return the rear of his army was attacked by the savage mountain tribes when in the narrow pass of Roncesval′les and cut to pieces. At its head was the renowned Roland, a famous hero of the poets, who told many wonderful stories about him and his exploits.

Pepin and the Papal States.—The great king had wars in Italy as well as in Germany and Spain. These were with the Lombards, who had long held the north of that country. His father, Pepin, had fought with them and taken from them some of their provinces, which he gave to the Pope. Before that the popes ruled over no land, their power being spiritual only. But from that time on they were monarchs as well as bishops, and the land which Pepin gave them was the beginning of the papal states, which they governed for more than a thousand years.

End of the Lombard Kingdom.—In Charlemagne's time the Lombards began to trouble the Pope again, and he led an army against them and completely defeated them. He took their king Deside′rius, shut him up in a monastery, and put on his own head the iron crown of the Lombards. Then he visited Rome, where the Pope received him with great favor, and they became strong friends. The provinces which Pepin had given to the Pope were confirmed to him by Charlemagne.

Ambition of the German Chiefs.—We have still to tell of the most famous event in the history of the great king of

the Franks. When the German tribes began to invade the south their leaders were only chiefs, chosen by their people and without much power. But they had a great admiration for the grandeur and dignity of the Roman emperors, and when they formed new kingdoms they tried to lay them out on the Roman plan. This is what Clovis sought to do, but he had bold and independent men to deal with, as you may know from the story of the vase of Soissons. Charlemagne was the first who succeeded.

The Dominion of Charlemagne.—Let us see what this great conqueror had done. When Pepin died he was not ruler over the whole of Gaul. But by the year 800 Charlemagne had won a great dominion, which covered part of Spain and all of Gaul and Germany to the Elbe River in the northeast and the Theiss River, of Hungary, in the southeast. It included also half of Italy and several of the islands of the Mediterranean Sea. Thus he ruled over a country as large as the old Western Empire of Rome.

Charlemagne crowned by the Pope.—In the year 800 Charlemagne went to Italy in splendid state. The Pope, who looked on him as the great champion of Christendom, received him with the utmost favor. On Christmas Day Charlemagne, with his nobles and courtiers, went to attend divine service at the church of St. Peter's, in Rome, and knelt on the altar steps in devout prayer. While he knelt there, the Pope, Leo III., approached and placed a crown of gold on his head, saluting him as Charles Augustus, the Emperor of the Romans, and the successor of Cæsar and Constantine.

Emperors of East and West.—This was the greatest honor any monarch could have had in that day. Charlemagne declared that it was a great surprise to him, but very likely

he knew what the Pope was going to do. For three hundred and twenty-four years there had been no emperors except those at Constantinople, but after that there were for a long time two emperors, one in the east and one in the



CHARLEMAGNE IN HIS IMPERIAL COSTUME.

west. Charlemagne reigned as emperor only fourteen years, for he died in 814, at his capital city of Aix-la-Chapelle (Aix-la-sha-pel′); but the title of emperor was kept up in Germany for many centuries afterwards.

Charlemagne as a Statesman.—We must say something more about this famous monarch. All his time was not


ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
CASPIAN SEA
BLACK SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
NORWAY
DENMARK
GAUTHIOD
SLOVIANS
Hamburg
Aix la Chapelle
Paderborn
Frankfort
Elbe R.
Oder R.
Vistula R.
Rhine R.
Danube R.
Nantes
Orleans
Poitiers
Bordeaux
Toulouse
Lyons
Milan
Genoa
Venice
Ravenna
Rome
Naples
DUCHY OF BENEVENTUM
Corsica
Sardinia
Balearic Is.
Sicily
Syracuse
Carthage
Crete
Cyprus
Constantinople or Byzantine
Saragossa
Granada
Salaca
Budajoz
Tagus R.
Guadiana R.
Rhone R.
Loire R.
Seine R.
FRANCIA OCCIDENTALIS
FRANCIA ORIENTALIS
KINGDOM OF LEON
CALIPHATE OF CORDOVA
The Spanish March
SERVIA
BULGARIA
AVARS
BYZANTINE EMPIRE
MESOPOTAMIA
SYRIA
PERSIA
Tigris R.
Euphrates R.
Artemita
Bagdad
Damascus
Kufa
WESSEX
ANGLO-SAXONS
UNDERREGBERT
CUMBRIA
WELSHLAND
EMPIRE OF CHARLEMAGNE
and its divisions in 843
Empire of Charlemagne
Byzantine Empire
Caliphate of Bagdad
Denmark
C.S.H. & CO., N.Y.
20 10 0 10 20 30 40 50 60
50
40
0 10 Longitude 20 East from 30 Greenwich 40

spent in fighting. In times of peace he was as busy as in times of war, looking after the affairs of his empire, and doing all he could to make his realm great and strong and his people well-to-do and happy.

The Emperor's Love of Learning.—You must bear in mind that Europe at that time was still in the "Dark Ages." Superstition, ignorance, and rude and brutal manners prevailed almost everywhere. There was hardly any learning outside the Church. The emperor himself did not know how to write, though he tried to learn this art in his old age. But he was fond of learning, was a good Latin scholar and knew something of Greek, and kept many learned men about him, with whom he talked on literary and other subjects. He founded schools and studied himself the chief branches of learning that were then taught.

How Charlemagne lived.—Charlemagne lived in state at his splendid palace at Aix-la-Chapelle, which was furnished and adorned with all the magnificence then possible. But he was plain and simple in dress and habits, was never a glutton at the table, and hated drunkenness. When at dinner he often had books of history and other works read to him, and he had copies made of the ancient Roman writings and of the old ballads of the German people. He also founded colleges and academies in various cities, but they did little good, for the great mass of the people continued in profound ignorance.

Famous Contemporary Monarchs.—While Charlemagne reigned England was united under a single monarch; Egbert, the first king of all England, being crowned in 800. He spent some years at Charlemagne's court in his youth. At the same time the Saracen Empire gained its most famous monarch in Haroun-al-Raschid, who exchanged letters and

presents with Charlemagne. Among the gifts he sent him were an ape, an elephant, and a clock which struck the hours,—a wonderful thing at that period.

Division of the Empire.—The vast dominion which Charlemagne had won with the sword did not keep together long after his death. His son Louis, who succeeded him, was not the man for such a task. He was called Louis the Gentle, and was better suited to be a churchman than a king. He divided his power with his sons, who were quickly at war with one another, and repaid their father by shutting him up for years in a convent. Louis died in 840, and three years later the empire of Charlemagne was broken up by the treaty of Verdun', between his three surviving sons. Charles took France for his portion; Louis took Germany; Lothaire took Italy and Burgundy and with them the title of emperor. Thus in less than thirty years after Charlemagne died his mighty empire had ceased to exist, and France and Germany began their history as separate countries.

THE SEA-ROVERS.

Charlemagne and the Sea-Rovers.—Let us leave the history of the continent for the present to take up for a while that of the lords of the sea. Charlemagne by his victories had put a limit to the movement of the invading tribes by land, but the ocean lay open before them, and over this his armies could not march. We are told that once, when from the western shores of his realm he looked out upon the sea, he saw there some long black boats with dragon prows, and crowded with armed warriors. The great king knew well what this threatened, and he burst into tears as he thought of the suffering those sea-rovers would yet bring to his land. He was not wrong, for within thirty

years after his death they had descended with blood and fire upon France.

The Land of the Northmen.—The first of these sea-rovers to sail to the south were the Angles and Saxons,

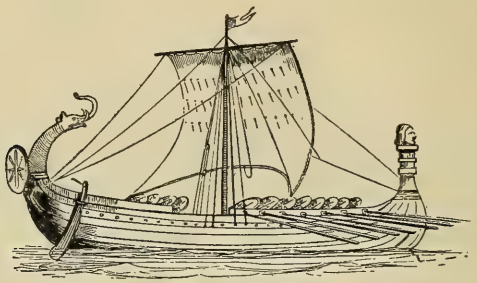


A Soldier and Ship of the Saxons.

who conquered England after the Romans withdrew, and established there an Anglo-Saxon kingdom. North of the land of the Saxons lay Denmark and its islands and the sea-washed peninsula of Sweden and Norway. Here dwelt a host of hardy and daring barbarians, who made the sea as much their home as the land. They were fishers at first, but in time they became pirates. They were known as

Northmen or Norsemen, and were dreadfully feared, and with good reason, by the people of the south.

The Coming of the Rovers.—We know nothing of these people till about the year 800, but in the century that followed they brought untold misery and ruin to southern lands. Every summer their black craft, filled with armed



NORMAN VESSEL OF THE ELEVENTH CENTURY.
(From the Bayeux tapestry.)

men, could be seen, as Charlemagne saw them, creeping along the shores of Germany, France, and England, or being rowed up their inlets and streams. Dashing ashore, the sea-rovers would plunder, burn, and murder all before them, and be far away in their boats before a force could be gathered to meet them. As the years went on they grew bolder and more numerous, and began to settle on the shores they had ravaged, defeating all who attacked them.

Exploits of the Northmen.—This kept on for two or three centuries, the Northmen being as bold and ruthless as the Angles and Saxons had been before them. We can only briefly tell the story of their work. They feared the stormy sea so little that they sailed daringly into the unknown west, and discovered Iceland and afterwards Greenland. They even reached the coast of America. Others of them

invaded Russia and gave kings to that great realm. But we are here concerned only with those who turned their prows to the sunny south.

The Danes in England.—It was about 800 when these rovers first appeared off the coasts of England. They were known as Danes, and spread great terror and caused terrible suffering. Being pagans, they delighted in burning the Christian churches, and the clergy everywhere fervently prayed, "From the fury of the Northmen, good Lord, deliver us."

The Danish Conquest.—In 871 Alfred the Great came to the throne, and for thirty years fought with these fierce invaders. For a time he was driven to the woods and swamps, but in the end he conquered them and made them his subjects. But after his death the war kept up for a century, and then Canute, the King of Denmark, became King of England (1016). Thus had the Saxons and the Danes become masters of that island. The Normans, of the same blood, were still to come to its conquest.

The Ravage of the Northmen.—The Normans were the Northmen who had settled in France. They were of the same origin as those called Danes in England. While some of these invaded that island, others swept along the shores of France and Spain, and sailed up their rivers, doing a great deal of damage. Paris and other cities were besieged, and in the year 918 Charles the Simple found himself forced to cede a large district in the north of France to Rollo, one of the leaders of the Northmen. In return they agreed to become Christians and subjects of the king.

The Normans.—Charles had acted wisely. Rollo and his followers were able to hold the land against new invaders, and they took up the civilized customs of France

with wonderful rapidity. The name Northmen was changed to Norman, and the newcomers adopted the manners, language, and religion of France. But they kept up their old spirit of daring and adventure, and the sea-rovers in time were transformed into Christian knights and warriors. These were the people who, under William of Normandy, invaded and conquered England in 1066. About the same time a party of them landed in the south of Italy, and formed there a sort of republic, which spread over the island of Sicily. One of its presidents, Robert Guiscard, made himself famous as a conqueror. The republic under him became a kingdom, which existed until 1194.



A Warrior of the Franks.

CHAPTER V

THE POPES AND THEIR INFLUENCE

A Look Backward.—We have, in the past chapters, gone over a long and vital period in the history of the world. We have seen how Rome grew to be a mighty power, covering all the civilized world. By Rome we mean not the city, but the great empire which it ruled. Next, over this region swept the fierce tribes from the north of Europe and Asia and the deserts of Arabia, and when their work was done the mighty empire had disappeared, except the small remnant left in the east, and the period of the Dark Ages had begun. Afterwards came the daring sea-rovers from the far north and conquered England and parts of France and Italy. Not until they had settled down to peace in their new homes was the era of invasion at an end and the new nations of Europe free to begin their true development.

The Bishop of Rome.—But Rome had not lost all its power and dominion. There was still in the old city a ruler whose power spread far and wide. This was the Pope, the bishop of Rome, whose rule was over men's souls. As time went on Christianity spread throughout a great part of Europe, driving out the old paganism, and wherever it went the dominion of the Pope extended. Kings might rule over men's bodies, but the great bishop of Rome ruled over their minds and souls, and the time came when the greatest monarchs of Europe did not dare to disobey his commands. In this way, as we have said, Rome became the seat of an imperial ruler of a new kind.

The Organization of the Church.—We cannot go on with the history of mankind without giving a chapter to the rise of the papal power. In old Roman times the Christian Church existed as a kind of republic under the empire. It



CLOVIS ENTERING TOURS DRESSED IN ROMAN COSTUME.

had its elected officers,—priests, bishops, archbishops, and patriarchs. In time there grew to be two great patriarchs, the bishops of Rome and Constantinople; but the rule of the bishop of Constantinople finally became confined to the small Greek Empire, while that of the Roman bishop extended over the rest of the Christian world, and his power over nations and kings became very great indeed.

The Pope's Power spreads.—The Roman bishop was called *pater* or *papa* (father), from which came the English word pope. He had no royal power, except over the small province which Pepin and Charlemagne had given him, but his moral influence was very great. All over the Christian world were churches and monasteries and convents, with their priests and monks and nuns, many thousands in number, including nearly all the learned and thinking men of the

age, and all of these looked upon the Pope as their lord on earth, supreme over the mightiest kings. Missionaries went out from Rome to preach the gospel to the heathens, and wherever they went the power of Rome extended. Not only the clergy looked on the Pope as the supreme authority, but hosts of the people did the same. In their view the Pope held the keys of the kingdom of heaven, and could do far more for them than any king. Thus, while Europe was divided into many kingdoms, with their earthly monarchs, the dominion of the Pope covered them all.

From Poverty to the Papacy.—As the centuries went on the power of the popes grew greater and greater, until the mightiest of monarchs did not dare to disobey their words. The Pope was not like a king, born to his high office. He was more like the President of the United States,—like Abraham Lincoln, for example, who was born a very poor boy, but raised himself by his genius to the head of the nation. It was the same with the popes, many of whom were born poor and were elected to the papacy because they showed themselves men of great minds.

The Rise of Hildebrand.—One of the greatest and most famous of the popes was Hil′debrand, who began life as a humble monk, the son of a poor carpenter of Tus′cany. He showed himself so learned and able that he was called to Rome to give advice and counsel to the popes, and was himself elected Pope in 1073. As Pope he took the name of Greg′ory VII. He was the great man of his age, the most notable character of the Middle Ages after Charlemagne.

Secular Power in Church Appointments.—The Church at that time had grown very rich. The churches and monasteries had gone on gaining lands till they held about half the land of western Europe. There were many high posi-

tions to be filled, posts of power and importance, and these had fallen into the hands of lords and princes, who often gave them to their favorites or sold them to the highest bidder. In this way many unworthy men came to be bishops or other high officers in the Church.

Gregory's Famous Decree.—Gregory looked on this as a great evil, and he made up his mind to put an end to it. So he issued an order that no lord or monarch should have the power of giving the ring and staff—the emblems of his office—to a clergyman, no one but the Pope himself. Any one who did not obey this order would be excommunicated. Excommunication was a great power in the hands of the popes. It cut off a man from his fellowman. No one could give such a man food or shelter without great danger to himself. If he were a king, his subjects no longer had to obey him.



HILDEBRAND, POPE GREGORY VII.

A Storm in Europe.—You may be sure that this decree of the Pope raised a great storm in Europe. It took from kings and lords a valuable power which they had long possessed. None of them now could appoint a high officer of the Church, and help themselves by doing so. Not only the princes, but many of the clergy, opposed it, for many of them had gained their offices in this way, and often were very unfit for them.

Henry IV. and the Pope.—One of the great monarchs, the Emperor Henry IV. of Germany, said that the Pope was

going beyond his authority, and that he would not obey any such decree. He went so far as to call a council of the clergy of Germany and depose the Pope from his office. Gregory, in return, called a council and excommunicated the emperor.

An Excommunicated Emperor.—Never had such a thing been done before, but the people soon saw the power of the Pope. Henry was shunned by his people as an unholy man. Monks and friars preached against him all through his kingdom. Insurrections arose on all sides, and all his power seemed slipping away. Henry had entered Italy to take revenge on the Pope, but he found himself deprived of all control over his people, and was forced to beg mercy at the hands of the poor carpenter's son.

Henry's Humiliation.—Gregory was at Canos'sa, a mountain town of Italy, and thither went Henry, a wretched penitent, to ask his pardon. But Gregory refused to see him, and for three days the late great emperor stood barefoot and clad only in a woollen shirt in a court of the palace, shivering in the winter cold, and humbly waiting for permission to kneel at the Pope's feet and beg for forgiveness. Only then did the Pope admit him and free him from the excommunication.

The End of the Struggle.—Henry had his revenge. He went home and raised an army, with which he invaded Italy and forced Gregory to flee from Rome. The great Pope died at Saler'no, saying, "I have loved justice and hated iniquity, and therefore I die in exile." But the proud emperor did not triumph, for he was excommunicated by the succeeding pope, and after a long struggle with the Church and with his own sons he died of a broken heart.

The Popes win.—The popes who succeeded Gregory kept up his policy, and one after another the kings of Europe were forced to yield. The emperors came last, but in 1122

the Emperor Henry V. gave up all claim to appoint the clergy to office, and thus the papal power won.

Innocent III.—The power of the popes was now at its height. Innocent III. (1198–1216) was the most powerful of them all. He claimed that all the kings of earth were vassals of the bishop of Rome, and he went far to prove this. He humbled King John of England, and forced him to pay him tribute. He forced Philip Augustus of France to take back the wife he had divorced. He made the Roman prefect of the emperor swear allegiance to him. Nearly all the kings of Europe swore submission to him as their overlord, and once more Rome seemed to be "mistress of the world."

The Begging Friars.—About this time there were organized two new bodies among the clergy, the Domin'icans and the Francis'cans, named after their founders, St. Dominic and St. Francis. Instead of devoting themselves to solitude and prayer in monasteries, these new monks went abroad to preach. They were vowed to poverty, and lived solely on the charity of the pious, so that they became known as "begging friars." But they increased in numbers with the greatest rapidity, and were greatly favored by the popes, whose authority they ardently supported.

The Decline of the Papal Power.—The papacy, as we have said, reached its highest power under Innocent III. A century later it was removed from Rome to Avignon (*ä-vēn-yōn'*) in France, and while there all the popes were French and were under the influence of the French kings. Quarrels broke out in church and state, and at one time there were as many as three popes at once. All this weakened the papal power, and the kings, while admitting them to be supreme in spiritual affairs, in time broke loose from their authority in all political concerns.

CHAPTER VI

FEUDALISM AND CHIVALRY

The Feudal System.—History is not confined to the story of things that were done by kings and great men, but it has also much to do with the way men lived and in what manner they were bound together into tribes and nations. The mode in which this was done in the mediæval period was very curious, and it is important you should know something about it. It is known as the Feu'dal system, or Feu'-dalism, which name comes from the way in which the land was held.

How the Land was divided.—When a Teutonic chief, with his tribe or army, conquered a new country, it was the custom to divide the land among them, the chief taking a very large portion—the lion's share—and each of his followers receiving a share suitable to his position and service. Then, as time went on, the chief or king often gave parts of his own estate to favored persons, who in return agreed to be faithful to him and be ready to follow him in war. The land thus given was called a *fief* or *feud* (from which comes the word *feudal*), and was held only during the king's pleasure. The man who did not take arms when called on to fight might quickly lose his estate, which would be given to some one braver or more faithful. In like manner those who held extensive estates often divided them up on the same principle, giving tracts of land to men who agreed to serve and fight for them. The same was done by bishops

and abbots who held large tracts of land. They often gave estates to knights who agreed to defend the monasteries.

The Duties of Lords and Vassals.—In this way, in time, whole countries became divided up, the great lords agreeing to fight, with their followers, for the king, in payment for their lands; the lesser lords to fight for the great ones, and so on downward to the poorest freeman and landholder. The lords, in return, promised to defend and protect their vassals. Even kings might be vassals to other kings. In this way William the Conqueror, King of England, was a vassal of the King of France for the lands which he held from him as Duke of Normandy.



KNIGHTS AND MEN-AT-ARMS.
(From an eleventh century miniature.)

How Armies were raised.—Thus a whole nation became organized as an army. If the king had a war on hand, he called on each of his vassals to come to his aid at

a certain time and place with so many armed men. These great nobles called in the same way on their vassals, and those in turn called on theirs, until the call went down to the farmers and yeoman who held feudal lands from the lower lords. Thus there quickly came together a large force of armed men, each paying his own way, or being paid for by his lord, and the king being at no cost.

Serfs and City People.—Of course, this did not include all the people. There were large numbers of *serfs*, men who were not quite slaves, but who were bound to the land as workers and could not leave it. If it changed masters, they remained on it. These were probably the old people of the country, who were held in this way by their new masters. Then there were the merchants and workmen in the cities, who were freemen but not land-holders.

Castles and their Uses.—There was plenty of fighting going on, not only between the kings, but between the lords, for they were rude, fierce, and quarrelsome, and many of them lived by war and plunder. So their houses became castles,—strong stone buildings, usually placed on some hill or high rock, and defended by strong walls and moats or ditches. Many of these castles were little better than dens of thieves, from which bands of armed men rode out for plunder, and behind whose walls they defied pursuit. The king's power over the lords was often not great, and they fought out their own little wars as if each of them was a monarch in his own right. Sometimes they defied the king and fought with him if he tried to control them.

An Age of Violence.—You may see that life in those days was a very uncertain thing. Everybody seemed to go about with a club in his hand ready to knock down his neighbor or save himself from being knocked down. Honest

and peaceful men had the worst of it. They were always in danger of being robbed, if nothing worse was done to them. And while this was the way with the rich and noble, the great body of the people were little better than slaves. There were laws, but the strong and powerful laughed at them, and the king was sometimes only the head robber in the land.

The Bad and Good of Feudalism.—Feudalism, you may see, was a bad thing in many ways. But it was good in some ways, and was perhaps the best thing for such a rude and ignorant and quarrelsome age. One of the good things which came out of feudalism was what is known as Chivalry, of which something must now be said.

The System of Knighthood.—France was the birthplace of Chiv'alry, though it spread to other lands and flourished over much of Europe for four or five centuries. Chivalry was due to the great love of war among the Teutonic nations, and also to their high regard for their women. It included the system of knighthood, of which we read so much in the history of that period. All the sons of the nobility, except those set aside for the service of the Church, were brought up to be knights. For this they were carefully trained, the sons of the poorer lords being brought up in the castles of the higher nobles, each of which was a kind of school in which the art of war was taught.

The Training of the Page.—From the age of seven to fourteen the boy was called a *page* or *varlet.* He attended the ladies of the castle in their walks and their sports, was taught to be obedient and courteous, and was instructed in religion and other useful things, including the use of weapons. The ladies instilled in him the gentler virtues of love, honor, and gallantry, and he was expected to select one of them as

his especial mistress, to whom he devoted himself, and who did what she could to teach him the manners and sentiments of a gentleman and man of honor.



THE CASTLE OF SALZBURG.

The Duties of the Squire.—At the age of fourteen the page became a *squire* or *esquire.* He now waited on the men instead of the women, and when his lord went to war he attended him, leading his war-horse, helping him to put on his armor, keeping near him in the fight, giving him a fresh lance when needed, and coming to his aid when he saw him in danger. In this way the squire learned to fight in actual war, and at twenty-one he reached the highest dignity of a soldier,—he was made a *knight.*

The Making of a Knight.—Sometimes a brave squire was made a knight on the battle-field, in reward for some signal act of courage. But usually this was done, with much more ceremony, in the castle. The ceremony began with fasting and confession of his sins and a night spent alone in prayer beside his weapons. Then, richly attired, he lis-

tened to a long sermon on the duties of a knight, and knelt before his lord to take the vows. He promised to be a good, brave, and gentle knight, to defend religion and the ladies, to redress the wrongs of widows and orphans, to rescue those in distress, and to be faithful to his comrades. This done, his weapons were given him, and the lord who conferred the honor struck him on the neck or shoulder with the flat side of his sword, saying, "In the name of God, of St. Michael, and of St. George, I dub thee knight; be brave, bold, and loyal."

Arms and Armor of the Middle Ages.—Here we must say something about the arms of the knight and the mode of warfare in the Middle Ages. It was not very different from what it had been in Greek and Roman times. Men still fought hand to hand with sword and battle-axe and lance. Gunpowder had not been invented, and for distant fighting the arrow was still the chief weapon. But there was this difference from ancient times. Where the ancient warrior defended himself with a shield, a helmet, and a breastplate, the knight covered himself from head to feet with armor. At one time chain armor was used, made of linked rings and hooks of steel. Afterwards plate armor was worn, the plates of bright steel overlapping each other. The horses also in time were covered with steel armor.

The Knight and his Followers.—A full-armed knight was a brilliant figure, with his glittering steel armor and that of his horse, the rich housings of his steed, his waving plume, his lance and sword and battle-axe. The swiftest arrow glanced off harmless from his firm coat of steel, and strong was the hand that could rend through it with sword or axe. After him in the field of battle came the men-at-arms, with helmet and breastplate, and the archers with

their bows, each with his own share of the fighting to do. The favorite amusement of those days was the tournament, in which two companies of noble knights fought in mimic battle with blunt spears and pointless swords—or at times



SINGLE COMBAT OF KNIGHTS.
(From drawing by Albert Durer.)

with sharp spears and swords. Those who have read Scott's famous novel of "Ivanhoe" will have an excellent idea of the tournament and the mode of war in the days of knighthood. We have mimic battles nowadays, but they are very different from the tournament.

The Institution of Chivalry.—Chivalry was an excellent institution in many ways. It softened the manners of the times, taught men to be gentle and honorable, to consider truthfulness as the highest duty, to be courteous and chivalrous to women, to hate injustice, and to esteem virtue. The knight errant wandered about the world seeking adventures, in which he pledged himself to maintain the honor and virtue of knighthood. That this was always done cannot be said. There were many who wore armor who were not true knights, and as for the lower classes, the high-born knight

cared no more for their rights than if they were so many wild beasts. So, under a great show of honor and courtesy, there was doubtless much cruelty and injustice throughout the days of chivalry.

What Gunpowder did.—It was the invention of gunpowder that put an end to the institution of chivalry, and had much to do with the overthrow of feudalism. When bullets began to fly, armor of steel was of little use, and was soon thrown off to get rid of its unpleasant weight. Battles began to be fought at a distance, instead of hand to hand, and the serf with his musket might now bring down the greatest noble of the land. But many of the virtues of chivalry continued, and the *knight* of old was succeeded by the *gentleman* of modern times.

CHAPTER VII

THE ERA OF THE CRUSADES

The Rescue of Palestine.—During the period when the institution of Chivalry was at its height all Europe was stirred to its depths by a great and noble purpose, this being to rescue Palestine, or the Holy Land, from the hands of the infidels who had long held it. This gave rise to a remarkable series of wars, called the Crusades, or "Wars of the Cross," which were the most prominent events in the history of those times. We cannot go on with the story of the nations till we have told the history of these famous wars.

The Christian Pilgrims.—All was well in Palestine while the Saracens were its masters. For more than four centuries they held it, and the Christian pilgrims who came there to pray at the place where the Saviour had died were well treated. But the Turks, who had long been Mohammedans, were now pressing southward from their old homes in northern Asia. Bagdad, the capital of the Saracen Empire, was captured by them, and in 1076 they seized Jerusalem and became the rulers in Palestine.

The Turks and the Pilgrims.—The Turks were much more fanatical than the Saracens, and they insulted, persecuted, and even killed many of the Christian pilgrims. In some cases they destroyed the churches in Jerusalem or desecrated them by using them as stables. The news of this created great excitement and indignation when it was told in Europe.

Peter the Hermit.—One of the first to tell the story of the doings of the Turks was a French pilgrim called Peter the Hermit. On his return from Jerusalem he told the Pope, Urban II., how he and the other pilgrims had been insulted and cruelly treated. The Pope was deeply grieved by



PETER THE HERMIT AND THE PATRIARCH OF JERUSALEM.

the story, and bade him to preach it through Europe. This he did, in a fervent and eloquent way that filled his hearers with revengeful fury. The desire to drive the infidel Turks out of the Holy Land became a consuming passion.

The Council at Clermont.—Two councils were held in 1095 at the call of the Pope, who himself spoke to a great multitude at the second, held at Clermont, France. As he earnestly bade them to take up the cause of the cross, the vast assembly broke out with the cry, "It is the will of God!" and at his suggestion they fastened a cross of red cloth on

their shoulders as a token that they were ready to march under that emblem. The 15th of August of the next year was fixed upon as the time for the great army to set out for Palestine.

Peter and his Host.—This was too slow for the excited multitude who had listened to Peter the Hermit. Early in the year 1096 a great host set out, said to number two hundred and seventy-five thousand men, women, and children, led by Peter himself and by a poor knight called Walter the Penniless. A reckless band, with no organization and little provisions, they foraged on the country and committed such depredations that the peasantry rose in fury and killed thousands of them, while thousands more died of hunger and exposure. A few of them reached Constantinople and crossed into Asia Minor, and these were met by the Turks, who cut the miserable remnant to pieces. Such was the bloody and disastrous beginning of the Crusades.



A Knight of the Cross.

The Army of Crusaders.—It was later in the year when the real army set out, a vast host, estimated at from three hundred thousand to six hundred thousand, among whom it is said were one hundred thousand knights in full armor. Among their leaders were Godfrey of Bouillon, Duke of Lorraine; Robert, Duke of Normandy; Tancred, "the Mirror of Knighthood," and others of note.

From Constantinople to Antioch.—Passing through Europe by various routes, this grand army reached Constantinople, crossed the Bosporus, and fought its way through Asia Minor. The Turks laid waste the land in front of the invaders, and nearly half of them died of hunger, thirst, heat, and fatigue before Syria was reached. Here they took Antioch, the capital city, after a dreadful siege lasting seven months, and from there marched upon Jerusalem.

In Sight of Jerusalem.—Out of the vast multitude that had left Europe only about twenty thousand warriors reached Jerusalem, with as many more pilgrims and camp-followers. When the Holy City appeared before their eyes they became frantic with joy, embracing one another and kneeling to kiss the ground. Then they took off their shoes and marched, singing joyfully, with bare heads and feet.

The Massacre of the Moslems.—The Saracens at that time held Jerusalem, having taken Palestine from the Turks. They defended the city bravely and it was five weeks before the Crusaders succeeded in entering its walls (1099). A bloody massacre of the Moslems followed, nearly all the Saracens in the city being slaughtered, while the soldiers took possession of their houses and property.

The Kingdom of Jerusalem.—The victors lost no time in founding a Christian government, giving it the name of the Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem. Godfrey of Bouillon, the great chief of the Crusaders, was elected its king. He refused to wear a crown of gold in the city where his Saviour had worn a crown of thorns, and would accept no title but that of Defender of the Holy Sepulchre. Many of the Crusaders now went home, leaving the new monarch only a small force to maintain his throne.

The Second Crusade.—There were various other Crusades, there being eight in all, but most of them were of little importance. As for the Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem, it was maintained for nearly a century (1099–1187). But



St. Bernard Preaching the Second Crusade.

after half a century it was in such danger of being overthrown by the Turks that a second Crusade was sent out to save it from ruin. This was a great movement. The eloquent monk, St. Bernard, preached it through France and Germany, and not only barons, knights, and the common people, but great monarchs, took part in it, being led by Conrad III. of Germany and Louis VII. of France. Starting in 1147, it numbered three hundred thousand men.

The Fate of the Crusaders.—The story of this Crusade can soon be told. The German army was betrayed by the emperor at Constantinople, who hated Conrad, and nearly the whole of it was destroyed by the Turks or perished of

hunger and thirst. The French had not much better fortune. They also had to fight their way against foes and famine, and very few of the great host, which had set out with so gallant a show, set foot in Jerusalem.

The Orders of Knighthood.—One thing we must speak of here, the organization in Jerusalem of the famous religious orders of knighthood. One of these was the Knights of St. John, or the Hospitallers, formed among the monks of the Hospital of St. John. A second was the Knights Templars, or the Knights of the Temple, the building they occupied being on the site of Solomon's Temple. Somewhat later was formed the order of Teutonic Knights. These warriors not only took care of the crusaders and pilgrims needing aid, but they battled bravely for the cross and won great fame. Many of the ablest knights of Europe joined them, and in time they grew very rich and had large estates and many castles in Europe and Asia.

Saladin takes Jerusalem.—But as time went on the Latin kingdom grew weak and the Mohammedan power grew strong. Sal'adin, a brave young chief, made himself Sultan of Egypt and then invaded Palestine, where he took town after town, and in 1187 he besieged and captured Jerusalem. The Christians were defeated on all sides, and only the city of Tyre, on the sea-coast, was left to them in Palestine.

The Third Crusade.—The news of the fall of Jerusalem created intense excitement in Europe. On all sides there was mustering of armed multitudes, eager to fight to the death for the Holy City. Kings again came to the head, Richard the "Lion-hearted" of England, Philip Augustus of France, and Frederick Barbaros'sa (Red-beard) of Germany. Each of these led a gallant host, but Frederick was

drowned in Asia Minor and his army was so disorganized that only a small fraction of it reached Syria. The English and French went by water and were more fortunate.

Richard and Saladin.—Not much of importance was done by this crusade. It took nearly two years to capture



THE CAPITULATION OF ACRE.

the one city of Acre, around which six hundred thousand men gathered. Then Philip of France grew angry at Richard of England and took his men back to France. Richard was a bold and hard fighter, but Saladin was very brave and able, and many were the daring exploits of these two famous men. In the end (in 1192) Richard made a truce with Saladin, who had shown himself as generous and courteous a knight as any of those he fought with. Thus ended the Third Crusade. Richard had made enemies among the Germans as well as the French, and on his way home he was taken prisoner in Austria and kept within prison walls for nearly two years. If you read Scott's "Ivanhoe" you will

have a fine picture of how he returned home and defeated his brother John, who was trying to seize the throne.

The other Crusades.—These are the only Crusades of which it is necessary to speak. The Fourth Crusade (1202–1204) did not reach Palestine at all, but got into war with the Greeks of Constantinople and captured that city, where they founded a Latin empire that lasted more than half a century. The four other Crusades were minor affairs. In 1228 Frederick II., Emperor of Germany, got possession of Jerusalem, but it was held only a few years.

The Children's Crusade.—One of the most remarkable events of these strange times was the Children's Crusade. In 1212 the crusading fever seized even the children. A French peasant boy of twelve years of age, named Stephen, began to preach that Jesus Christ had commanded him to lead an army of children to rescue the Holy Sepulchre. His preaching set the children wild with excitement, and they gathered in vast crowds. "Even bolts and bars could not hold them," we are told. Fifty thousand German children, mostly boys under twelve, but with many girls also, set out and crossed the Alps and marched through Italy, looking for a miraculous pathway across the sea. Several thousand of them sailed away, but they were never heard of again. There were about thirty thousand of the French children, many of whom sailed from Marseilles. But these were betrayed and sold as slaves to the Mohammedans. These children must have been helped by men who were as mad as they, and nothing shows better how ignorant and superstitious and fanatical were the people of Europe in that age of mental gloom.

The Good done by the Crusades.—The Crusades did much good, even if they did not win the Holy Land. They

brought the people of the nations of Europe together, and taught them to know each other better and become more brotherly in feeling. They also made them more generous towards the infidels, whom they had looked on as monsters of wickedness, but found to be gallant and honorable men. The people got to know much about the products of the east, and an active commerce in these products sprang up. Another thing was the sale of many properties of the nobility, which made the Church rich by their purchase and also helped to break up the strength of the feudal system and give power to the kings. Men also learned something of the arts of the east, they grew far more liberal in spirit, with larger ideas and wider views, and a great revival of the intellect of Europe began. The Dark Ages were at an end.

THE ASIATIC MIGRATIONS.

The Coming of the Turks.—It was the coming of the Turks that gave rise to the Crusades. These Turks belonged to that region of Asia from which the Huns had come many centuries before. Their coming was the beginning of a vast and terrible migration from the steppes of the centre and north of Asia, the home of the great pastoral, or cattle-raising, races of that wide region. It was the last of the mighty southern movement of the fierce northern tribes, and can best be told of here.

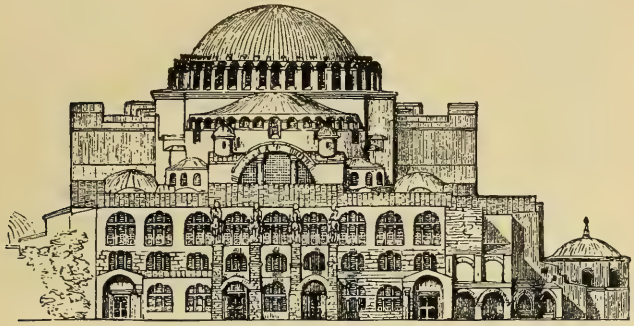
The Terrible Deeds of the Mongols.—The Turks were a powerful people, but there was another people named the Mongols, who were building up a wonderful kingdom in Asia about the time of the Third and Fourth Crusades. Their leader, Genghis-Khan (born in 1156), was one of the greatest and most blood-thirsty conquerors the world has ever known. Attila, the terrible leader of the Huns, did

not work a tenth of the havoc of the savage Mongol leader. In a few years he swept, with his wild horsemen, over most of Asia, and built up a mighty empire at a cost of fifty thousand towns and cities and five million lives. His successors conquered China and Russia. One of them, named Tam'erlane, or Timour the Lame, was as great and sanguinary a warrior as himself, and in turn led his hordes over Asia, killing so many people that he had a great pyramid built of human skulls. Many districts that swarmed with life were left bare and desolate by these savage hordes, and have never recovered from that terrible scourge. But the great Mongol Empire soon fell to pieces, one of its relics being the Mogul kingdom in India, which lasted for three hundred years, and was a great and splendid kingdom which has left us many magnificent buildings. Russia was under the rule of the Mongol Khan for two centuries.

The Conquests of the Turks.—While the Mongols were at their terrible work the Turks became active again. These were called the Ottoman Turks, after their leader Othman. They conquered all before them in Asia Minor and invaded Europe, where their leader Baj'azet met a great army of the warriors of Hungary, Germany, and France, one hundred thousand strong, and cut them to pieces at Nicop'olis, in Bulgaria (1396). The proud Turk vowed that he would make the great Cathedral of St. Peter in Rome a stable for his horses; but first he turned back to capture Constantinople.

The Fall of Constantinople.—Fortunately Tamerlane was then in his high tide of conquest. He attacked the Turks, and Bajazet was forced to meet him and was completely defeated. That battle saved Constantinople for a century and a half longer. After the Mongol Empire fell to

pieces the Turks grew strong again, and in the year 1453 Mohammed II. besieged the Greek capital with an army of over two hundred thousand men. For fifty-three days his artillery battered its walls, and then the Turks broke in and



CHURCH OF ST. SOPHIA, CONSTANTINOPLE.

the city was theirs. The last emperor, Constantine, was killed fighting in the street, and the cross on the dome of St. Sophia was replaced by the crescent, which remains there to this day. Thus fell the Greek Empire, a thousand years after the fall of the empire of Rome.

SUMMARY OF EARLY MEDIÆVAL HISTORY.

Odoacer (the first king of Italy)	476	A.D.
Theodoric the Great defeats Odoacer and conquers Italy	493	"
Justinian reconquers Italy for the Eastern Empire	554	"
The Lombard kingdom founded in Northern Italy	568	"
Clovis conquers Gaul	486	"
Clovis becomes a Christian	496	"
Mohammed is born in Arabia	570	"
The Saracens conquer Syria	632	"
Conquest of Persia	632–641	"

Egypt and Northern Africa overrun . . . . . 638–689 A.D.
Constantinople besieged . . . . . 668–716 "
Conquest of Spain . . . . . 711 "
Invasion of France; battle of Tours . . . . . 732 "
Haroun-al-Raschid, the great Caliph . . . . . 786 "
The Magyars invade Europe . . . . . 889 "
The first coming of the Turks, about . . . . . 800 "
Charles Martel (Mayor of the Palace in France) . 715 "
Charles defeats the Saracens at Tours . . . . . 732 "
Pepin the Short (Mayor of the Palace) is crowned King of France . . . . . 752 "
Charlemagne (Charles the Great) succeeds to the throne . . . . . 768 "
He conquers Lombardy and is crowned its king . 774 "
Invades and conquers Saxony; invades Spain; makes great conquests in Germany . . . . 772–798 "
Charlemagne crowned by the Pope as Emperor of the West . . . . . 800 "
The Angles and Saxons invade and conquer Britain, about . . . . . 450 "
Egbert, the first king of all England . . . . . 827 "
The Danes invade England, about . . . . . 800 "
Alfred the Great . . . . . 871 "
His wars with the Danes; final victory . . . . 878 "
The Normans begin their raids in France, about . 800 "
They besiege Paris; are granted the province of Normandy . . . . . 918 "
Canute the Dane made King of England . . . . 1016 "
The Feudal System established in Europe, after . 800 "
The Institutions of Chivalry and Knighthood, about . . . . . 1100–1500 "
Otto the Great of Germany restores the Empire of the West (the Holy Roman Empire) . . . . . 962 "
Hildebrand (Gregory VII.) humbles the Emperor Henry IV. . . . . 1093 "
The Crusades . . . . . 1095–1272 "
Peter the Hermit tells of the sufferings of the Pilgrims . . . . . 1095 "

The fate of Peter's followers . . . . . 1096 A.D.
The First Crusade . . . . . 1096 "
Antioch and Jerusalem taken by the Crusaders . 1099 "
Godfrey of Bouillon crowned King of Jerusalem . 1099 "
The Second Crusade . . . . . 1147 "
Religious orders of knighthood originate with the Knights Templars . . . . . 1119 "
Saladin takes Jerusalem . . . . . 1187 "
The Third Crusade . . . . . 1189 "
Richard the Lion-Hearted and Saladin . . . . . 1192 "
The Children's Crusade . . . . . 1212 "
The other Crusades . . . . . 1202–1272 "
Pope Innocent III. and the power of the Papacy . 1198 "
King Philip of France and John of England humbled by Pope Innocent III. . . . . 1200, 1208 "
The Begging Friars are instituted . . . . . 1170–1182 "
Decline of the papal power after . . . . . 1300 "
The Ottoman Turks invade Europe . . . . . 1353 "
Genghis-Khan and the Mongol conquests . . 1164–1227 "
Timour the Lame . . . . . 1336 "
The terrible Mongol ravages . . . . . 1210–1405 "
Constantinople taken by the Turks . . . . . 1453 "

SECTION II.—THE REVIVAL OF CIVILIZATION

CHAPTER I

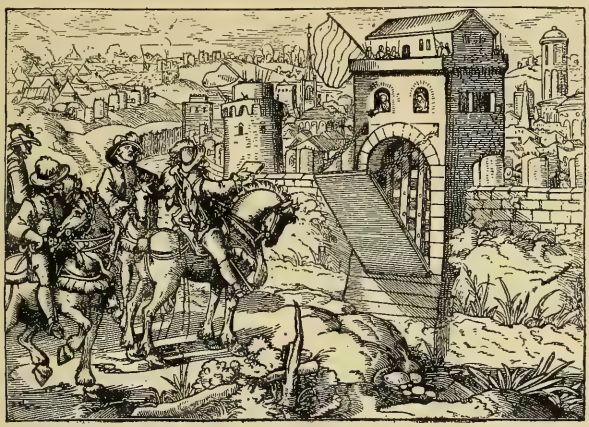
MEDIÆVAL PROGRESS

The Age of Revival.—It is not easy to fix a date for the end of the Dark Ages and the beginning of the revival of learning and civilization. The Dark Ages are held to have lasted from the fall of Rome to the eleventh century, a period of five or six hundred years; but before this century learning showed some signs of reviving, and after it came in the revival went on very slowly. No doubt the Crusades had much to do with aiding this new growth of civilization.

A New Growth in Civilization.—Many of our readers may wish to know what we mean by the revival of civilization, and it is important to say something about it before we go on. It consisted of various things,—the development of commerce and manufactures, a great improvement in city life, the repression of violence and robbery and the establishment of law, the advance in learning, literature, and art, and the other steps of progress which make for the higher civilization. It meant the passing away of the dense ignorance and rudeness of manners of the earlier centuries, the repression of the robber barons, the development of chivalry and courtesy, the opening of schools, the study of ancient authors, and the coming of new authors and new readers.

The Feudal Cities.—Let us first speak of the rise of the cities. When the feudal system was at its height the cities became part of it. The merchants were robbed of money

and goods at the very gates of the cities, and to prevent this they put themselves under the protection of powerful lords, who agreed to defend them in return for their assistance in



SUMMONS TO A TOWN TO SURRENDER.
(From an old engraving.)

time of need. Other lords took possession of cities by force, and in these ways many towns and cities were brought into the feudal system.

The Rebellion of the Cities.—But the protecting lords were often as bad as the robber barons, making the merchants pay dearly for their protection, and in the eleventh century many of the cities, which had become rich and strong, began to rebel against the way they were treated. In time they forced the lords to give them charters, and won the right of managing their own affairs. Some grew so wealthy and densely peopled that they became quite free from control by the feudal lords, and ruled themselves like little republics. This was especially the case with the cities of Italy and to some extent with those of Germany.

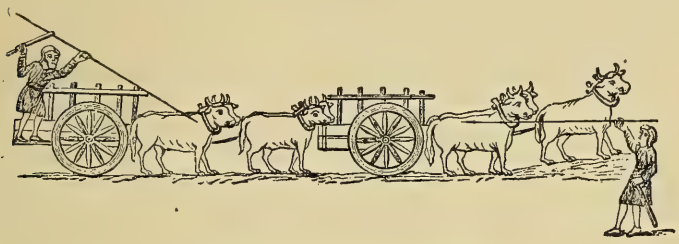
The City-States of Italy.—In Italy there came to be a strange state of affairs. Each of the cities in time grew into an independent state, until there were about two hundred of these in north and central Italy, which attended to their own affairs with little heed to pope or emperor. Most important among them were Venice and Genoa, which became rich and active centres of commerce, and Florence, which was a great centre of manufacture, and also became noted for its poets and artists and statesmen. These cities did not remain republics. Powerful aristocrats in time got control of them, and at length they were governed by princes or nobles with princely authority.

The Hanseatic League.—In the north of Europe there was a different state of affairs. While the cities of Italy were hostile to each other, and were often at war, those of Germany combined for the protection of their merchants against pirates at sea and robbers on land. They formed a strong confederation called the Hanseatic League, which in time included eighty-five of their principal towns. The league was strong enough to defy lords and princes, and it controlled all the commerce of northern Europe. It had trading-posts in various foreign cities, the chief of which were London, Bruges, Bergen, and Novgorod. This league kept long together, and some of its members remained "free cities" till our own times.

Manufactures in the Cities.—The cities also became active centres of manufacture, and *guilds* of workingmen arose, each of which controlled some special industry. The woollen manufacture of Flanders was one of the earliest industries, the cities of Ghent and Bruges being its chief seats. One by one many other manufactures sprang up, including silk and linen, iron and glassware, and too many

other things to mention, and some of the cities grew so wealthy and prosperous that they could well claim to be small kingdoms in themselves.

How the People lived.—While speaking of the cities, something should be said of the houses of the people and of how men lived. The great barons, as we have said, had their strong stone castles, near whose walls there was



CARTS OF THE ELEVENTH CENTURY.

usually a village of the common people. These had at first very rude houses, but as the Dark Ages passed away men began to live better. Before this time there was no such thing as a chimney, and the smoke from the fires had to make its way through an opening in the roof. Window glass was also unknown. This first came into use in the fourteenth century. When a house had a second story, it had to be reached by a ladder or stairs from outside, and the rooms were rough and bare, without plaster or carpets and with only a little rough furniture. But as the merchants of the cities grew rich they often lived in great style and luxury, in fine large mansions, with silverware and rich hangings and pictures and costly furniture.

The Grand Cathedrals.—The great works of art of the Middle Ages were the cathedrals,—the large and splendid churches which adorned many cities. The builders of these

developed a style of architecture of their own, changing from the *round arch* of the Roman buildings to the *pointed arch* of the Gothic structures. There are no grander buildings in the world than some of the great cathedrals built at this time, with their tall spires, their splendid arches, their great windows, their elaborate sculptures, their lofty columns. Many of them stand to-day, and lovers of art seek Europe to gaze upon and dream over these massive and glorious works of architecture.

The Utility of the Schools.—We have mentioned some few of the things that were done that men might live better and enjoy more comfort and happiness. And while men were improving their bodies they were improving their minds also. One of the best things done by Charlemagne was to start schools in connection with the churches and monasteries. For several hundred years these were of very little use to the common people, but those who studied to enter the ranks of the clergy made use of them, and some of these became very learned, so far as there was any learning in those days.

The Schoolmen and their Philosophy.—We cannot say that there was much to teach at that time. In the universities much attention was given to theology, or the science of religious thought, and an odd kind of philosophy was developed whose professors were called schoolmen. They tried to reason out all the mysteries of faith and religion, and many great thinkers appeared, though their writings have very little in them that people care to read nowadays. They were trying to settle something which nobody could settle, yet they did some good in stirring up men's minds and making thought more active. Many of the questions they disputed about were very absurd, as, for instance, "How

many angels can stand on the point of a needle." It was thought that spirits took up no space.

The Universities.—There were great schools and universities, in which the schoolmen argued and lectured. These, as time went on, grew numerous, and thousands of eager students attended them. Chief among them was the University of Paris, whose professors included many famous and brilliant men, and whose scholars came from all parts of Europe. There were also able professors of science, the most famous of whom were the English monk Roger Bacon and the German monk Albertus Magnus.

The Ballad-Writers and the Saracens.—But the monks were not the only men of thought. There were writers also among the common people, and during the Dark Ages many ballads and other poems were written, of which only a few fragments remain. At that time, as you have already been told, the Saracens of Spain had a rich and thriving civilization, in which science was deeply studied, and poems and histories were written. This could not help having some influence on Europe. We know, for example, that Roger Bacon and Albertus Magnus learned much of their science in Spain.

Song-Writers of France and Germany.—At any rate, during the eleventh and twelfth centuries there appeared a swarm of poets, singing like so many joyous birds. The monks wrote in Latin, but these poets wrote and sang in their own languages. In France they were called Trou'-badours and in Germany Min'nesingers, and their songs were of love and knighthood and chivalry. They roamed as minstrels from castle to castle, singing their verses and playing their guitars, and the castle people were glad enough to have them, for life in the castles was often very dull.

Some Famous Poems.—Longer poems were written, too. In Spain there was a famous romance of war and gallant deeds, called the poem of the "Cid," and in Germany a grand heroic poem named the "Nibelungen Lied," which is still much read. And the Trou'veres of France wrote long romances of love and knighthood and adventure and magic which were as much enjoyed then as novels are to-day.

Great Mediæval Writers.—Later on, in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, came some of the greatest poets the world has ever known, the Italians, Dan'te and Pe'trarch, and the English poet, Chau'cer, whose works are among the choicest treasures of literature. And there were prose writers as well as poets. There was the famous story-writer, Boccaccio (Bokkat'cho), and some able writers on history and other subjects. But we must say that in those days there were few readers besides the monks and friars, and the people had to depend greatly for their enjoyment on the wandering minstrels and story-tellers.

A Host of Things.—Much more might be said about the literature and the manners and customs of the people, the luxury of the rich and the sufferings of the poor, the cruelty of the governments and the nobles and the terrible punishments inflicted, and a host of things besides, but it would take a book to tell it all, and a few words will have to serve us here.

Increase of Luxury.—At the close of the mediæval period commerce and manufacture were very active, and the rich nobles indulged in great display and extravagance in dress, furniture, and table service. The wearing of handsome apparel and rich ornaments of gold and jewelry became common among the wealthy, the houses of the people were much improved, and coaches were introduced, though

for a time only ladies rode in them. The castles were full of attendants and the kings entertained thousands at their feasts. Gold and silver plate was abundant on the tables of the rich, yet such a thing as a fork was not known, and the guests took up the food with their fingers. A knight and his lady would often eat from the same plate, and many things were done which now would be thought very rude and barbarous. But not many centuries earlier the fathers of those people had wandered like savages in the wild woods, so we should not expect too much of them. Centuries hence people may look on many things we do to-day as equally rude and uncivilized.

CHAPTER II

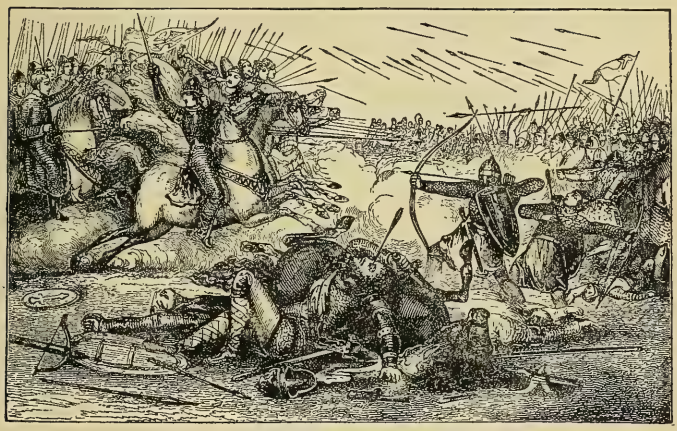
ENGLAND IN MEDIÆVAL TIMES

The Development of the Nations.—During the time of which we have been reading the nations had been growing in strength and organization. Beginning as mere gatherings of invading tribes, and going on as groups of semi-independent feudal nobles, they gradually developed into settled kingdoms. By the end of the mediæval age the new countries of Europe had become well-established and firmly governed nations, and we must now deal with them one by one. We shall begin with England, for this small island was one of the most important among them.

England in Saxon Times.—You have read the first part of the story of England: how it was conquered by the Romans; how the Britons became Christians and grew civilized; how they were conquered by the Anglo-Saxons, who formed several small kingdoms, which in 827 were united by Egbert into one; how the Danes came and were bravely fought by Alfred the Great; how they came again, and Canute, King of Denmark, became King of England also. Alfred the Great was a wise and famous king, and so many stories are told about him that he is quite a hero of romance. At one time he had to wander about disguised as a peasant, but by his courage and skill and wisdom he won back the throne and did wonderful things for the benefit and improvement of the people. After Charlemagne, he was the greatest and most learned monarch of the Dark Ages.

Canute and Edward.—Canute also was a wise and able king, and the country was happy under his rule. But the people did not like his sons, and in 1042 Edward the Confessor, who belonged to the old Saxon line, was called to the throne. He was a studious and pious man, but he was not much of a king, and after his death great trouble came to England. Once more it was conquered by people of the Northmen race, this time by the Normans of France.

William and Harold.—When Edward died, William, the Duke of Normandy, claimed the English throne, saying that Edward, who had no sons, had promised it to him. But the nobles chose for king Earl Harold, a great nobleman, who had married Edward's daughter.



THE BATTLE OF HASTINGS.

The Battle of Hastings.—Harold soon had his hands full. His brother, Tostig, claimed the throne, and got the King of Norway to help him win it. Harold hurried north to fight Tostig and his Northmen, and won a victory in which

Tostig was killed. But word came to him that William of Normandy was crossing the channel with a large and strong army of Norman and French knights and men-at-arms. The British king marched to the south in all haste, and met his new enemies at a place called Hastings, where a long and bloody battle was fought on October 14, 1066. The English showed themselves very brave and daring, but the French were better armed, and, as night came on, Harold was killed and William remained master of the field. On Christmas Day of that year, William—who is known in history as William the Conqueror—was crowned King of England in Westminster Abbey. So, as the Danes had followed the Saxons, the Normans followed the Danes.

William the Conqueror.—William was a brave and skilful general, but he was a stern and cruel man. The Saxons were held in bondage by the proud Norman barons, who were given large estates and built strong castles, and treated the people as if they were slaves. The new king was very fond of hunting, and, that he might have a forest to hunt in, he drove the people out of a tract of country thirty miles wide, tearing down their houses and churches and paying them nothing for their property. Any one who dared to kill game in this forest was punished more cruelly than if he had committed murder.

The Old Laws and Language preserved.—William introduced the feudal system into England. But he took care that none of the nobles should be too great, for he proposed to be master of them all. Stern as he was, he gave peace to the land and saw that the laws were obeyed. These were the old laws of Saxon times, for he did not interfere much with old things. In the court and the church and the law-courts the French language was used, but the people clung

to their own speech, and it remained the language of the land, though many Norman words came into it. In fact, the Saxons and the Danes and the Normans were all the same race of people, and they soon came together as one. But the great body of the inhabitants were of Anglo-Saxon blood, and for that reason their language and customs were preserved with little change.

William Rufus.—William the Conqueror died in 1087, and many kings followed him, with their wars and ambition and struggle for power. But all this is of little real importance, and we may go over it very rapidly. William left the



THE DEATH OF WILLIAM RUFUS.

throne to his son William II., called *Rufus*, from his red hair. He was a bold man, but also a cruel one, and was harder on the people than his father had been, so they were not sorry when strange news came to their ears in 1100.

How William II. died.—On a day in that year a poor charcoal-burner was driving his cart through the New For-

est,—the hunting ground which William the Conqueror had made out of the Saxon farms,—when he saw a dead man on the ground, with an arrow in his breast. He put the body in his cart and brought it out of the forest, when it was found to be the corpse of the king, who had been shot while out hunting. No one knew whether it was done by accident or on purpose, but many of the people said it was heaven's vengeance for his father's robbing the people of their land.

The Norman Kings.—After William Rufus came other kings of the Norman line,—Henry I. (1100–1135), Stephen (1135–1154), and Henry II. (1154–1189). Henry II. was the first of those called the Plantagenet kings, a name which he brought over from Normandy. Henry I. had married the niece of Edgar Atheling, a prince of the old Saxon line, and Henry II. was her grandson, so the Norman line seemed at an end and the old line of English kings to have come back, —or, at least, the two lines were united.

Henry II. and the Barons.—Henry II. was an able and a just king. In Stephen's time the barons had become very daring and unruly, plundering and oppressing the people and making their castles mere dens of robbers. Henry led an army against them and destroyed many of their castles, and chose new barons of English blood. And he reformed the law-courts, so that more justice could be had. One of the great events of his reign was the conquest of Ireland, which before his time was governed by a number of chiefs or petty kings. Since his reign it has been part of the dominion of England.

Henry's Two Sons.—Henry left two sons who became kings,—Richard I., the great fighter who went to Palestine and fought with Saladin, and whose story we have told in

the history of the Crusades, and John, a base fellow, who tried to steal his brother's throne, and who became king in 1199, after Richard was killed in a petty fight in France.

How Magna Charta was won.—John tried to play the tyrant, but he found that the English nobles and people had no notion of being slaves to their king. He taxed the people as much as he pleased, and plundered and oppressed the rich and poor alike. At length they got tired of this, and in 1215 they went to war with him, and whipped him so completely that he was forced to grant them whatever they asked. They made him give them a great charter of English liberty. This is known as "Magna Charta," and it took from the king the right to tax the people at his will or to send to prison and punish any one he pleased. He could have money only when the barons were ready to grant it for public needs, and no freeman could be punished except by regular process of law. Justice was secured for all, from the noble to the serf, and ever since then Magna Charta has been the great foundation of English liberty.



English Money Dealer of the Fifteenth Century.

The Saxon Witan.—Under Henry III., the son of King John, another great step in English liberty was taken. From Saxon times there had been in England a kind of Parliament, composed of the Witan, or chief men of the nation.

We still have this assembly in the House of Lords. But the members of the Witan were great nobles, who looked after their own rights and cared very little about the common people. There was nobody to speak for the rights of these.

The Parliament of the People.—Now, the people had been helping the nobles in their quarrels with the kings, and felt that they ought to have some share of the benefits. They joined in the fight against King John, and their rights were looked after in Magna Charta. Henry III. also tried to act the tyrant, and the nobles and people, under Sir Simon Montfort, went to war with him, and defeated and took him prisoner. Sir Simon then did a great thing for English freedom. The old assembly was made up of lords and knights and great clergymen. He added to it two common men from each borough, who were chosen or elected by the people. These in time grew into the English House of Commons, which obtained the right to control all grants of money to the king, and thus became able to keep the monarch from doing many things against their wish. In our day the House of Commons is the real ruler of the British kingdom.

The Freedom of Scotland and Wales.—Henry III. had a very long reign (1216–1272). His son, Edward I., was a warlike king, who had an ambition to rule over the whole of the British island. When the Saxons invaded England many of the old Britons had made their way into the rugged and mountainous country of Wales, and here they still spoke their old language and preserved their old liberty. The people of Scotland had always kept an independent country, which the Romans in vain sought to conquer. It was Edward's ambition to conquer these countries and add them to England, so as to bring the whole island under one king.

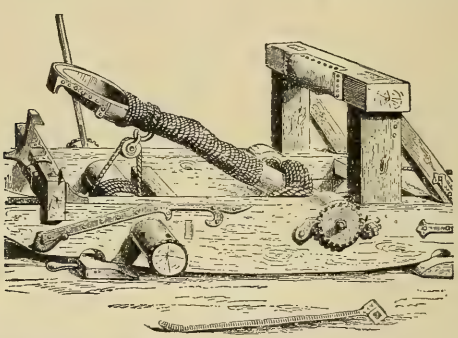
Robert Bruce and Bannockburn.—Edward I. succeeded in conquering Wales, and made his oldest son the first "Prince of Wales." He tried to conquer Scotland also, and for a time got possession of a great part of that country. But a noble chieftain, Robert Bruce, appeared in Scotland, and fought gloriously for the liberty of his country. For a long time he was like Alfred the Great, forced to keep in hiding and to flee from the soldiers, who pursued him like so many hunting dogs. The story is told that one day while he lay in his hiding-place, he saw a spider trying to attach its thread to a wall. It failed six times, but in the seventh it succeeded. This was a fine lesson in perseverance, and Bruce kept on until he had nearly driven the English out of the country. Edward I. died, and his weak son, Edward II., marched against the Scottish chief. A fierce battle was fought at a place called Bannockburn, at which the English met with a terrible defeat. After that they let Scotland alone for a time and Robert Bruce reigned as king.

The Hundred Years' War.—One of the most warlike of all the English kings was Edward III., who reigned for fifty years (1327–1377). He brought Scotland again under his power, but the great wars of his reign were in France, where there broke out what was known as the Hundred Years' War. It really extended from 1328 to 1453, so that it went on for more than a hundred years, though of course the actual fighting covered only a small part of this period.

The Lords of Normandy.—To get at the cause of this great war we must go back to the days of William the Conqueror. While he and his family held England, they held Normandy also, and thus had a large foothold in France. They were feudal vassals of the French king, but that did not trouble them much.

The Dominions of Henry II.—Henry II. had a much greater dominion in France. His father was Earl of Anjou, and his mother ruled over Maine and Normandy, so that these three large provinces came to him. And he married Eleanor, Duchess of Guienne (Ghe-en′), the divorced wife of Louis VII. of France. So he became ruler not only of England, but of the greater part of France. But much of these great possessions were lost by John, from whom they were conquered by Philip Augustus of France.

Edward III. at War with France.—Edward III. was not long on the throne before he laid claim also to the



The Margonneau, a Fifteenth Century Military Machine.

throne of France, saying that his mother had been daughter of Philip IV. of France and he was the nearest heir to the crown. It was not long before he began to fight for it. In 1340 his war-ships destroyed those of France in a great naval battle, and in 1346 a famous land battle was fought at Cre′cy, in France. The French were much more numerous than the English, but they suffered a terrible defeat. It was in this battle that the English first used cannon in war.

Calais and the Black Death.—Edward next besieged and captured the strong city of Calais (Kah′lā), which was looked on as the key of France, and which the English kept for nearly two centuries. Soon after that an event occurred which for a time put an end to war in Europe. A fearful pestilence, called the Black Death, swept over Europe from 1347 to 1350, and carried away many millions of the people. Hâlf the people of England died, and in some of the cities of Germany it is said that not a soul was left alive.

The Battle of Poitiers.—In 1356 the French suffered another terrible defeat. The Prince of Wales—called the Black Prince, from the color of his armor—was overtaken after a plundering expedition in France, at Poitiers (Pwâ-te-ā′), by a French army sixty thousand strong, largely made up of the knights and nobles of France. The Black Prince had only eight thousand men, but by skilful use of his archers he completely overthrew the great French host, and killed large numbers of the great nobles of France. The French king, John, was taken prisoner.

Henry V. and Agincourt.—These wars left France in a terrible condition. A peace followed Poitiers, but the people were almost in a state of starvation, and bands of armed brigands roamed about the country, robbing and murdering at will. For half a century there was no actual fighting between England and France; then Henry V., who became king in 1413, brought up the old claim to the French throne, invaded the country with a powerful army, and in 1415 won a great victory at Agincourt (A-zhan-cour′).

Henry VI., King of England and France.—This disaster took the very heart out of the French, who were left in a state of misery and despair. Their country was almost a desert, and a large party among them agreed that the

English monarch should be their king on the death of the insane king, Charles VI., who was then on the throne. Henry died before this happened, but his son, Henry VI., was proclaimed king of England and France.

Joan of Arc.—The liberty of France seemed lost, but in its most desperate condition a wonderful thing happened. A young peasant girl, known in history as Joan of Arc, felt that she was chosen by heaven to save France. She was put at the head of the army, rescued the city of Orleans from the British, won other victories, and brought the new king, Charles VII., to Rheims to be crowned. Then the British took her prisoner and burned her as a witch. But she had given new spirit to the French, and the war now went against the English, until by 1453 the city of Calais was the only stronghold they held in France. Thus ended the Hundred Years' War, in the very year that Constantinople was taken by the Turks.

Wat Tyler's Insurrection.—One of the most important things that took place in England during this war was a rebellion of the people, who were dreadfully oppressed by taxation and the unjust actions of the nobles. A great body of them, led by one Wat Tyler, marched to London and demanded redress. They committed many acts of violence, but in the end Wat Tyler was killed and his followers were induced to go home, under promise of redress. This promise, made by the king, Richard II., was not kept.

The Wars of the Roses.—The war in France was followed by a long and terrible civil war in England. It was a struggle between the descendants of Edward III. for the throne, the adherents of the rival houses of York and Lancaster fighting desperately to win the power. It was called the Wars of the Roses, because the Yorkists wore

a white rose as their badge and the Lancastrians a red rose.

Bosworth Field and the Death of Richard III.—The war lasted thirty years and twelve pitched battles were fought, during which three kings of the House of York—Edward IV., Edward V., and Richard III.—occupied the throne. The bloody contest ended with the battle of Bosworth Field in 1485, in which King Richard III. was defeated and killed; his rival of the House of Lancaster—Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond—succeeding to the throne as Henry VII. The most important result of these wars was the ruin of the barons of England, one-half of the nobility being slain. This greatly increased the power of the king, for now he had only the people to deal with, so that it became easier for him to act the tyrant.



An English Archer.

CHAPTER III

FRANCE AND SPAIN

Mediæval France.—The history of France in mediæval times next demands our attention. It is a history full of incident and change, but you have already read much of it, and little remains to be told. It was not until after the reign of the mighty Emperor Charlemagne that France existed as a separate nation. Afterwards, for centuries, most of its kings were weak and feeble, and for a hundred years it was in great danger of being made a mere province of England. Then a peasant girl came to the rescue, the immortal Joan of Arc, and France took its due place among the nations. This you have read, and we may briefly go over the remainder of its story in mediæval times.

The Descendants of Charlemagne.—You know that it is a common thing for a great man to have insignificant sons. That was the way with Charlemagne. For nearly two centuries (814–987) his descendants reigned over France, and among them all there was scarcely a man worth speaking of. Here are some of their nicknames to show how little the people thought of them. Among them were the Good-natured, the Bald, the Stammerer, the Simple, and the Idle. Not one of them was the Great or the Noble. Men like these do not win respect or cause fear and obedience.

The Power of the Barons.—The great barons of France cared little for the power of these weak kings, and each of them ruled like a monarch. During this time the sea-rovers of the north were invading France, and the people, as the

kings did nothing, looked to the lords to protect them from the pirates, fleeing for safety to the castles. This gave new power to the feudal barons, and left the king not much more than his name and his crown to boast of.



MAP OF FRANCE.

A New Line of Kings.—Do you ask, what was the end of this? Well, it was very much as when Pepin the Short made himself king, and shut up the last of the Merovingian

kings in a convent. When the last of the Carlovingian kings died, Hugh Capet (Kah-pā′), the most powerful of the barons, was elected to the throne, and became the first of a new line of kings, called the Capetian line. The history of the French kings up to this time was remarkable. Both the strong Clovis and the strong Charlemagne were followed by a line of weak descendants, most of whom were idle and worthless. And it may be said that many of the new line of kings were not much better.

The Capetian Dynasty.—Hugh Capet, in fact, had only the name of king. He had little of the power. Most of



STARVING PEASANTS FIGHTING THE DOGS FOR BONES.

the territory of France was held by the great nobles, and even in his own domain some of the nobles scoffed at his authority. To show what a shadow the power of the kings became, it may be said that while one of the great nobles, William of Normandy, was conquering England, Philip I., the king, was growing gray in trying to capture a castle which stood within sight of Paris.

The End of the World.—In the year 1000, while Robert, son of Hugh Capet, was king, a remarkable state of affairs

existed in Europe. That was the date of the *millennium*,—the end of a thousand years after the birth of Christ,—and hosts of people believed that it would be the "end of the world." They got into a wild state of fright, all business was neglected, terror ruled on all sides, even the fields were not planted, and there came on a dreadful famine, followed by a fatal pestilence, which caused frightful misery and swept away a vast multitude of people. It was the ignorance, and vice, and superstition of the Dark Ages that made such a thing possible. Only when the new year dawned did the people take new courage and come to their senses again.

Norman Power in France.—One thing that helped to keep down the power of the French kings was the authority which the Norman kings of England held over great provinces in France. Henry II., by marrying Eleanor, the divorced wife of Louis VII. of France, won two French provinces, and had more power in France than the French king himself.

Philip Augustus and King John.—In 1180 an able king came to the French throne, Philip Augustus, the ablest since Charlemagne. It was he who went to the Crusades with Richard I. of England. After the wicked and cowardly John became King of England he was accused of murdering his young nephew Arthur, heir to the province of Brittany in France. Philip summoned King John, as his vassal, to answer for his crime before the peers of France. When John refused to appear, Philip declared that he had forfeited all the lands he held in France. These were added to the French throne, which now ruled over most of the country. The remainder of the story of the conflict between France and England has been told in the history of England. We need only say here that the end of the Hundred Years' War

left the French kings far more powerful than they had been since Charlemagne.

The Massacre of the Albigenses.—There were some important events in French history during this period which call for brief mention. When Philip Augustus was king a dreadful massacre took place in Languedoc (lang-doc′), in southern France, where there was a large body of Christians who did not believe in the doctrines of the Church of Rome. A crusade was preached against them, and hosts of them were slaughtered in the most frightful manner. The king took possession of their province and his power now reached to the Mediterranean.

Saint Louis and Philip IV.—Louis IX. (1226–1270), known as Saint Louis for his virtue, wisdom, and justice, did one good thing for France in founding the "Parliament of Paris," a court of justice to enforce equal laws throughout the kingdom. Two of the minor Crusades were led by him, and he did much to add to the power of France. Another king, Philip IV. (1285–1314), did some memorable things. One was the conquest of Flanders, the country north of France. But he governed it so badly that the brave Flemings rose and killed their oppressors and won back their independence. Another thing which Philip did was to put an end to the Knights Templars, the famous Order of knighthood founded during the Crusades. He had all the Templars in France arrested, condemned them for vice and crime, and had their grand master and others burned to death. They were also suppressed in other countries, and the great and proud Order came to an end.

The Third Estate.—But the great thing done by Philip IV. was to call out what is known as the "Third Estate." Up to that time all power in France was in the hands of the

king, the nobles, and the clergy, the common people having no influence. But Philip got into a bitter contest with Pope Boniface VIII., and to win the support of the people he permitted them to send delegates to the States-General, a national parliament which he had called. This was giving a great political right to the French people. The same right had been given to the English people thirty-seven years before. But while the English people retained this right, the French did not, and the Third Estate met only a few times in their history before the memorable year 1789.



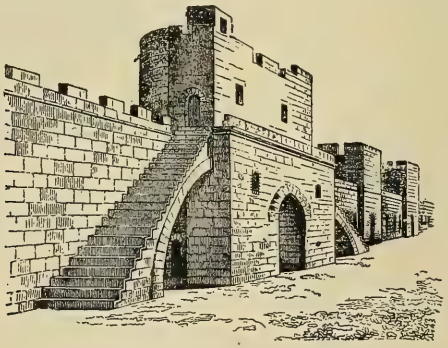
LOUIS XI.

The Valois Line.—The Capetian line of kings came to an end in 1328 on the death of Charles IV., who left no son. He was succeeded by Philip of Valois (Väl-wä′), a nephew of Philip IV., and the first of the Valois kings. Edward III. of England claimed the throne as a more direct heir, and this led to the terrible Hundred Years' War, which we have described.

The Reign of Louis XI.—The Hundred Years' War was followed by the reign of one of the most famous kings of France, Louis XI. (1461–1483). He was a man of great ability in statesmanship, but was cruel and crafty, winning his ends, not by force, but by treachery and deceit. It was his purpose to overthrow feudalism, and make himself the true King of France, and this he largely did. The great slaughter

of the nobles in the Hundred Years' War gave him an opportunity to do this, and many of the great feudal provinces were brought by him under the control of the crown.

The Story of Charles the Bold.—The greatest of these provinces was Burgundy, which had grown nearly independent. Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, was lord also of Holland and Belgium, and thought himself as good a king as any in Europe. He was a daring, high-spirited man, constantly seeking to increase his dominion, while Louis met all his efforts with craft and cunning. At length Louis stirred up war between Burgundy and Switzerland, and the brave Swiss defeated Charles in three hard-fought battles. In the last the proud Duke of Burgundy was killed, his body being found in a pool of water by the roadside. That ended the contest, and Burgundy was soon added to France.



Ramparts of City of d'Aigues Mortes.

The Rise of the French People.—Charles VIII. (1483–1498), was the last of the Valois line, and his reign may be held to close the mediæval period in France. The King of France had now become an absolute monarch, for the States-General was rarely called, and then only to carry out the

orders of the kings. The great power of the feudal nobles was at an end, and the authority of the monarch extended over all France. The cities had long been free, and they now came under the king's control. Their people were protected in their industries and their rights and were ready to aid the monarch in his wars. Many of the serfs, also, had bought their freedom, and a large middle class had been formed. There was still much crime and misery, but the power of the law was increasing, and the country was growing rich and prosperous. Thus France was emerging from a mediæval into a modern state.

SPAIN AND THE SARACENS.

Saracen Spain.—Crossing the southern border of France, composed of the rugged Pyrenees Mountains, we find ourselves in the realm of Spain, which for centuries had been under the rule of the Saracens, and the seat of one of the most flourishing kingdoms of that remarkable people. But a fragment of the old Gothic race remained in the northwest corner of the land, whom the Saracens in vain sought to subdue.

Winning back the Land.—The Gothic place of refuge was in the mountainous district of Austuria, and there they not only held their own, but they gradually pushed back the invaders and won back part of their old dominion. The war was kept up incessantly for centuries, and as new provinces were recovered new kingdoms were formed. Chief among these small Christian states were Ar'agon and Castile (Kas-teel'). The name of Castile came from the line of castles which was built along its borders against the Saracens.

Growth of the Christian Realm.—A great victory against the Saracens—or the Moors, as they were now called—was

gained in 1212 at Tolo'so. In this all the Spanish kingdoms took part, and from that time on the power of the Moors steadily went down. If the little kingdoms had not fought with one another, they would have driven out the Moors much sooner than they did. As it was, Castile and Aragon continued to gain in power, and in 1479 Ferdinand, King of Aragon, married Isabella, Queen of Castile, and the two kingdoms were united.



LANDING OF COLUMBUS.
(From a print of 1590.)

The Conquest of Granada.—By this time the Moors had been driven back till they held only a small dominion in the south of Spain, known as the kingdom of Grana'da. Ferdinand was determined to drive them out of this and recover all Spain. For ten years the war went on. The Moors fought with much of their old courage, but city after city was lost, and finally Granada, the capital, was besieged by a powerful army. In 1492 it fell, and the Mohammedan rule in Spain was at an end. The Moors were allowed to remain in Spain and keep their old war-ships, but under laws which

made life very unpleasant to them. In the same year (1492) Columbus made his famous voyage to the New World. He was sent out by Ferdinand and Isabella, and his success did much towards making Spain the leading state in Europe.

The Kingdom of Portugal.—Ferdinand did not rule over the whole peninsula. One of the small kingdoms—once a part of Castile—remained independent, under the name of Portugal, and it has maintained its freedom, except for a short period, from that day to this. It was a land of bold navigators, who sailed far down the coast of Africa, and in 1486 reached the southern end of that continent, a feat which had not been performed since the days of old Egypt. In 1497 Vas'co da Ga'ma sailed round the Cape of Good Hope and made his way to the rich land of India. This discovery gave Portugal, for a long time, control of the richest commerce of the world.

CHAPTER IV

GERMANY AND ITALY

Political Status of Germany.—The history of Germany is in many ways a singular one. You know how it was in France under Hugh Capet, when he was merely the overord of the country and the great nobles were in almost every way independent rulers. In Germany it was very much the same, only that the minor rulers in that country were still more independent. Germany had its emperors, but they were not born to the throne. They were elected by the great lords of church and state, so that these dignitaries held the balance of power. Some of the emperors were able and powerful men, but wars in Italy kept them from using their power in Germany, and thus for many centuries the land was divided up into small kingdoms and dukedoms. It was not until the time of Napoleon that many of these little states were absorbed by the larger ones, and not until after 1870 that all those left were combined into a true empire. For many centuries there were kings and princes and counts and margraves and little rulers under other names, and some of the free states were so small that a man with seven-league boots could



A Mediæval German Fisherman.

have easily stepped across them. Thus the political history of Germany was different from that of any other country.

The First German King.—After Charlemagne died his empire was divided up into the kingdoms of Germany, France, and Italy. But the descendants of the great emperor ruled in Germany for less than a century, and even then some of the great dukes were the real rulers. In the year 911 five of these dukes came together and elected Duke Conrad of Franconia as their king. From that time on the rulers of Germany were chosen by election.

Otto the Great and the Holy Roman Empire.—Henry the Fowler was the second king, and after him his son Otto was chosen, being crowned in 936. Otto I., or Otto the Great, was the ablest king Europe had seen since Charlemagne. He made himself king of Upper Italy as well as of Germany and conquered new territory from Denmark on the north and Poland and other countries on the east. Then he decided that he would like to have the old title of emperor, and got the Pope to crown him, as an earlier pope had crowned Charlemagne. From that time on every German emperor was three times crowned, as King of Germany, King of Italy, and Emperor of the West. Most of the time this was an idle fiction, but it was one which had a great influence over the politics of that age, and the Holy Roman Empire was a real realm in the minds of the German rulers.

Italy and the Emperors.—One bad thing for Germany came from the belief in a Holy Roman Empire. Italy was not ready to submit to the rule of these foreign emperors, and there was a continual succession of wars, the German armies being marched into Italy to put down rebellion, while Germany was left to take care of itself. This was one great

reason why the emperors never became supreme at home. They wasted their strength abroad. And while Germany suffered much from this, Italy suffered more, for many bloody battles were fought on its soil, and all to keep up this foolish notion of there being a Holy Roman Empire when there was nothing of the kind.



MAXIMILIAN I. CROWNED BY THE POPE.
(From a sixteenth century manuscript.)

The Emperor and the States.—This was the reason why there was really not much important history in Germany for centuries. The minor states managed their own affairs, and the emperor was often too busy making history in Italy to take a very active part in German affairs. So we may run very rapidly over the story of the emperors.

The Henries and the Popes.—In time the emperors came to have much to do with the election of the popes. Henry III. (1039) made himself very busy in this way, and Henry IV. (1056) got into a fierce quarrel with Pope Gregory VII. over church matters, and had to humble himself to the Pope. This story you have read. Henry V. also had disputes with the popes, and Italy was distracted with the quarrels between pope and emperor.

The Great Imperial Families.—The emperors came from several of the great noble houses of Germany. Otto I. and several of his family were princes of Saxony. Then came a line of Franconian emperors, which included the Henries just named. Afterwards the Hohenstaufen family, Dukes of Suabia, obtained the title. Later on it fell to the House of Hapsburg, or the Austrian family, and finally for many centuries the title of emperor was confined to the Austrian monarchs. The ruler of Austria is still called emperor, though he no longer claims to be "Emperor of the West."



FREDERICK BARBAROSSA.

Frederick Barbarossa. — The most famous of the Hohenstaufen emperors was Frederick I., called Frederick Barbarossa from his red beard. He was crowned emperor in 1155, and spent much time and treasure in trying to conquer the cities of Northern Italy. These were fighting for their liberty, and in the end they won it and got the right to govern themselves. After that Barbarossa went out with the Third Crusade, and was drowned while crossing a river in

Asia Minor. When the news came home, the people would not believe he was dead. The tradition arose that he was asleep in a cavern under one of his castles, and that, when the ravens ceased to circle round the hill on which it stood, the great emperor would come forth again to make Germany united and strong. You may judge from this wild fancy that the Germans of that time were an ignorant and superstitious people.

Frederick II.—Henry VI., the next emperor, kept up the wars in Italy and conquered Sicily, and his son, Frederick II., though he was crowned emperor, spent his life in Sicily, only visiting Germany once in thirty years. He was a learned and able man, who surrounded himself with poets, artists, and learned men, and could speak six languages. He led a crusade to Palestine and took Jerusalem, but much of his life was spent in quarrels with the popes and he was twice excommunicated. He died in the midst of these struggles.

SWITZERLAND.

A Multitude of Free States.—During the wars of the emperors and their long absences in Italy, the princes and nobles grew more and more independent, and at the close of the Hohenstaufen period there were in Germany no less than two hundred and seventy-six states, large and small, over none of which, except his own, the emperor had much control. It had come about by this time that only seven princes took part in the election of the emperor, and were known as electors. Four of these were secular rulers, and three were powerful churchmen who ruled over great estates.

The Freedom of the Swiss.—Among the provinces under the emperor was the mountain land of Switzerland. The

people of that country had never been the kind to look on any man as their master, and while they called the emperor their ruler, they did not trouble themselves very much to obey him. Of the various divisions of Germany, Austria lay nearest to Switzerland, and at length the dukes of that country thought they would like to lord it over the mountain land. So they tried to conquer the brave mountaineers.

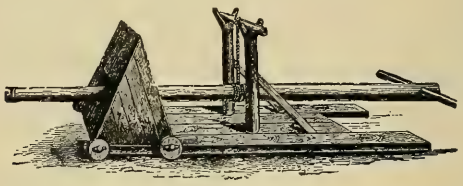
The Swiss War with Austria.—In the first part of this quarrel appeared the famous Swiss hero, William Tell. You may have read of how he shot the apple off of his son's head with an arrow, and told the haughty Austrian duke that he had another arrow ready for him. This story, wise men tell us, is all a fable, and the first we really know about the quarrel was in 1315, when the Swiss gained a great victory over the Austrians at Morgarten Pass. In another great victory, at Sempach, in 1386, we are told that a noble patriot, Arnold of Win'kelried, caught in his arms all of the long Austrian spears he could reach, and fell dead as he cried, "Comrades, I will open a road for you." Through the road he made the Swiss rushed in, and soon put their foes to flight. There were battles after that, but finally the Swiss gained complete independence, which they still keep, though they own but a little mountain land in the midst of great countries.

ITALY AND ITS CITY-STATES.

Italy and its Rulers.—Italy had to wait for many centuries before it had a national government of its own. It had kings in its early days, it is true, but it soon became divided up and remained so for many centuries. After the days of Charlemagne Italy came under the rule of popes and kings, and was claimed by Otto I. as part of the Holy Ro-

man Empire. This claim gave rise to dreadful wars, which raged in that country during several centuries.

Guelphs and Ghibbelines.—The people of Italy became divided into two great factions, which took sides in the frequent quarrels between the popes and the emperors. These were called the Guelphs (Gwelfs) and the Ghibellines (Gib′-el-ins), the Guelphs being the friends of Italian independence, the Ghibellines the supporters of the emperor. Thus the land was divided against itself, and the very cities were broken up into hostile camps by the fights of the factions. It was on account of these quarrels that Dan′te, the great poet, was forced to wander for many years in exile from his native and much-loved city of Florence.



BATTERING-RAM.
(From an old manuscript.)

The States of Italy.—In an earlier chapter we have told how the cities of Italy came to be independent states. Sometimes they worked in harmony, but often they became hostile rivals and went to war with one another. Thus while Germany was divided into a great number of small dukedoms and principalities, Italy, in like manner, was divided into numerous city-states, which were very much like the city-states of ancient Greece.

The Commerce of Venice.—The two greatest of the independent cities were Venice and Florence. Venice, built on islands in the sea, was well situated for commerce. Its

ships carried the Crusaders to Palestine, and brought back the silks and spices and other rich goods of the East. It had thriving manufactures also, especially in silk goods and glassware, and grew very rich and populous.

The Greatness of Florence.—Florence was a great manufacturing city, producing silk and woollen goods, jewelry, and many kinds of rich wares. Its bankers supplied money to Italy, and the gold florin of Florence became the standard coin of Europe. Like Venice, it was at first a republic, but the Medici (Med'i-che), a family of rich merchants, rose to power and were long the lordly rulers of the city. Venice also lost its republican government and fell under tyrannical oppressors.

Genoa and Venice.—Of the other city-states, Gen'oa was the most important. Its prosperity came from an active commerce, and it grew to be the chief rival of Venice. There was often war between the two rival cities, and their fleets fought fiercely for the control of the Mediterranean. When the Turks took Constantinople much of the rich trade of these cities was cut off, and after a new path was discovered around Africa to India the greatness of Venice and Genoa disappeared.

Barbarossa and the Cities.—In the wars of the emperors and the popes the city-states of Italy found it hard to preserve their liberty. Frederick Barbaros'sa made a determined effort to deprive them of their freedom. Five times he crossed the Alps with powerful armies, leaving Germany to take care of itself while he tried to subdue to his will the proud citizens of Italy. For a time he had the best of it. Mil'an, which had defied him, was taken and razed to the ground, a ruin being left where a splendid city had stood.

The League of Lombardy.—In 1167 the cities of Lombardy formed a league against the emperor, and after nine years more of conflict they gained a great victory over Frederick and his army on the field of Legnano (Len-yah′no). After that Frederick made peace and left to the cities of Italy the right to govern themselves.

Rienza the Tribune.—Here we must speak of an interesting attempt to make a nation out of Italy and bring back some of the glory of old Rome. This was in 1347, when the popes had removed to Avignon (A-vēn-yōn′), France, and when the nobles of Rome were acting as petty tyrants and keeping the city in turmoil and dread by their quarrels and fights in the streets. At this time one of the common people, named Rien′za, stirred up the citizens against the nobles, and a new government was formed, he being chosen Tribune of Rome.

A Dream of United Italy.—After that Rienza tried to combine all the little states of Italy into one nation, and patriotic Italians were full of hope. Among these was Pe′trarch, the celebrated poet. But Rienza was not the man for the great work he had undertaken. His sudden rise to dignity turned his head, and he acted so foolishly that the people turned against him. In the end he was killed. That dispelled the hope of forming a united Italy, and many centuries of war and subjection lay before the disunited people.

CHAPTER V

THE ELEMENTS OF MEDIÆVAL PROGRESS

End of the Mediæval Age.—We have now brought the history of Europe down to the end of the mediæval period, which, in the view of historians, is held to extend over about one thousand years, beginning with the fall of Rome in 476 and extending nearly to the year 1500. Some writers fix 1453, when the Turks captured Constantinople, as the end of this period, but others place it at 1492, when Columbus discovered America. In fact, the mediæval period did not end at any fixed time, and it is idle to give it a date. Change went on very gradually, and in some nations much faster than in others. So the dates chosen are only used for convenience, not because they signify any special turning-point. Some nations were fully civilized while others were in the Dark Ages.

The Mediæval Periods.—We have divided the mediæval age into two periods, each about five centuries long. In the first of these progress seems to have moved very slowly, so far as we are able to tell, though we know very little of what was going on. In the second period the progress was far more rapid, and at the close of mediæval times the nations in the southwest of Europe had greatly advanced in the conditions and customs of civilization, and had well-established governments, an abundant literature, polished and courteous manners, and active and varied industries; so that, while they were still far from what we call enlightenment, they may be held to have fully gained the level of the

people of old Rome, and gone much beyond it in some respects.

Fall of the Eastern Civilizations.—This development was confined to western Europe. In eastern Europe and Asia, and in northern Africa, in all of which civilization had once gained a fine development, the world had gone backward. The great civilizations which had once existed in the south of Asia had been swept away by the hand of war, and finally destroyed by the Turks and the Mongols. The Saracen civilization, for some centuries very active and promising, had largely sunk into decay. The Eastern Empire, including the seat of the splendid civilization of ancient Greece, was now held by the barbarian Turks. Everywhere except in the western half of Europe the world was sinking back into barbarism, and the hope of the world's future rested largely upon the few countries whose history has just been told.

The Work of Modern Centuries.—Up to the time which we have now reached little had been done towards extending the domain of civilization beyond the borders of the narrow region described. This was to be the work of the next period, the four hundred years to come. In those new centuries not only was man to make wonderful progress in all the arts and sciences and in all that goes to make him great and noble, but was to carry civilization to every quarter of the globe, and plant new and flourishing nations in continents as yet unknown. Such was the work which lay before the nations of Europe when the ships of the discoverers sailed from Portugal and Columbus set out from Spain in quest of a new world.

The Teutonic Awakening.—Let us briefly review the influences which brought the world to the point it had reached

in 1492. If the German tribes had remained in their woodland home, and had not been brought under the influence of Rome, they might to-day have been as barbarous as they were two thousand years ago. The Teutonic people have shown that they are the best thinkers and the most progressive people of the world, but they needed to be started on the path of progress, and it was the conquest of the Roman Empire that started them.



A Saxon Warrior.

New Influences on the Conquerors.—We have seen how quickly the rude Northmen took up the polished manners of France and developed into the civilized Normans who conquered England. It was much the same with the wild tribes that conquered the provinces of Rome. They settled down among a numerous population trained in Roman ways and arts and speaking the Latin language, and we soon find these rough men of the north gaining new forms of speech and taking up new habits and customs.

The Work of the Church.—One vast change quickly took place among them,—they became Christians and gave up their old base and rude heathen worship. And the old Roman Empire did not all pass away, for the Church of Rome was kept alive, with all its old organization and influence. As time went on this church did much towards

civilizing the conquering tribes. And it formed a grand centre for all the learning of the age. The monasteries were full of earnest students, and it was from them that the seeds of learning were in time planted among the people.

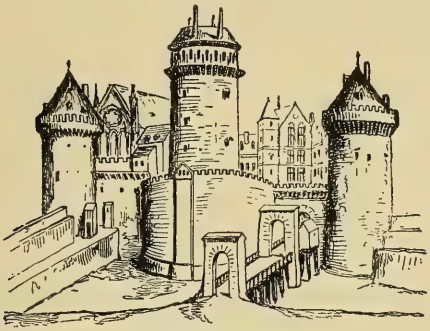
Aids to Progress.—Another great aid to the progress of the people was the influence of the Saracens of Spain. These had taken up some of the learning of old Greece, and had developed thriving arts and sciences of their own. A third aid was the influence of the Eastern Empire. Within the walls of Constantinople was preserved much of what had made Greece and Rome great and famous, and the influence of the arts and the learning of that city slowly made its way far to the west.

Effect of the Crusades.—There was no greater aid to civilization than the Crusades. These were full of lessons for the people of western Europe. The Crusaders brought back a host of new ideas from Constantinople and Palestine, and a commerce as active as that of old Rome was started by Venice and Genoa and other cities. The Crusades definitely carried Europe out of the Dark Ages and brought it into the Age of Revival.

The Church and Chivalry.—By the time the Crusades ended Europe was well advanced on the highway of progress. It had gained well-founded governments, and the Church had grown very powerful and was exerting a strong influence in favor of learning, literature, softness of manners, and the brotherhood of mankind. A powerful aid to this was the institution of chivalry, which went far to overcome the rudeness and cruelty of feudalism.

New Ideas of the New Times.—The new civilization was not a close copy of that of old Rome. Fresh modern ideas had grown up. Thus the meetings of the freemen of the

old tribes had developed into the parliaments of the nations, of which we find the finest example in the Parliament of England, which was a grand new development in the art of government. A new type of literature had also arisen, unlike any that had ever been known before. And there was a new order of architecture, the Gothic, which there had been nothing like in the ancient world.



CHATEAU DE COUCY.
(From a thirteenth century manuscript.)

An Age of New Things.—We lay down these few points so that you may see that the new nations were not blind copyists of the old. They had taken up the civilization they found waiting for them, but they had changed and revolutionized it in many ways, and the new nations which had arisen were very different from those of ancient times. There was a new idea in government, a new development in religion, a new respect for woman, a new literature, a new architecture, and the element of newness and freshness in many other ways. Such was the outgrowth of the Mediæval Age.

SUMMARY OF LATER MEDIÆVAL HISTORY.

England.

Edward the Confessor 1042
Harold, the last Saxon king 1066
The Norman invasion 1066
William the Conqueror 1066
Feudalism in England; the Saxon laws preserved.
William Rufus and his death 1087
Henry I. 1100
Stephen 1135
Henry II. 1154
Henry humbles the barons. Richard Cœur de Lion,
the Crusader king 1189
John 1199
John grants Magna Charta (the Great Charter) to the
people 1215
Henry III. 1216
Simon de Montfort establishes the Parliament . . . 1265
Edward I. 1272
Conquest of Wales; Invasion of Scotland . . 1282, 1294
Edward II. 1307
Bruce's victory at Bannockburn 1314
Edward III. 1327
Conquest of Scotland 1333
Beginning of the Hundred Years' War in France . . . 1340
Great victories at Crécy and Poitiers 1346, 1356
The surrender of Calais 1347
The Black Death 1347–1350
Richard II 1377
Henry IV. 1399
Henry V. 1413
Great victory over the French at Agincourt 1415
Henry VI. 1422
Henry is proclaimed King of England and France . . 1422
Joan of Arc raises the siege of Orleans 1429
The English expelled from France 1429–1451

The Wars of the Roses begin 1455
Edward IV. 1461
Edward V. 1483
Richard III. (assassinates Edward) 1483
Battle of Bosworth and death of Richard 1485
Henry VII. 1485

FRANCE.

The feeble descendants of Charlemagne. Hugh Capet seizes the Throne 987
The end of the world expected 1000
The kings have little power; the barons defy them. Philip Augustus gains power 1180
Philip joins the Third Crusade 1189
Annexes English provinces in France 1204
The massacre of the Albigenses 1208
Louis IX. (St. Louis) 1226
Louis founds the Parliament of Paris 1226
Leads the Seventh and Eighth Crusades 1249, 1270
Philip IV. 1285
Suppression of the Knights Templars 1307
Philip VI. 1328
Edward III. of England claims the French throne and invades France 1340
Louis XI. 1461
The contest with feudalism; Louis and Charles the Bold 1465–1477

SPAIN.

The Saracen Conquest 711
The Goths hold Austuria; gradually reconquer Spain. Victory over the Saracens at Toloso 1212
Ferdinand and Isabella and the Moorish War 1479
Conquest of Granada and complete recovery of Spain . . 1492
Founding of Portugal 1139
Portuguese maritime enterprise 1400–1500

Germany.

Duke Conrad elected king	911
Otto the Great	936
Otto is crowned Emperor of the West	962
Henry IV.	1056
His contest with Pope Gregory VII.	1077
Conquers Rome; the Pope in exile	1084
Frederick Barbarossa	1152
Frederick is crowned emperor	1155
Defeated in Lombardy	1176
Drowned in Asia Minor	1190
Frederick II.	1215
His contests with the Pope; leads the Sixth Crusade; enters Jerusalem by treaty and crowns himself king	1229
Switzerland defeats the Austrians and gains its freedom	1386

Italy.

Struggle of the Guelphs and Ghibbelines (adherents of pope and emperor)	1290–1400
Venice a great mart of commerce	1099–1497
Florence, a famous centre of manufactures and art	1200–1530
Genoa, a rival of Venice in commerce	1261–1463
Frederick Barbarossa destroys Milan; is defeated at Legnano	1176
Rienza the Tribune seeks to unite Italy	1347
Fails and is slain	1354

PART III

MODERN HISTORY

SECTION I.—THE ERA OF RELIGIOUS WARS

INTRODUCTION

Commerce and Discovery.—In the days in which we live one of the most powerful agents in the progress of the nations is the wonderful activity in geographical discovery and commercial enterprise. These agencies are carrying civilization to the most remote corners of the globe, bringing all people together in harmony, and spreading the products of the fields, the mines, and the factories over the whole inhabited surface of the earth. For this reason we select the period in which discovery grew active and daring, and in which commerce began to seek very distant lands, as that in which modern history began.

The Old Travellers.—In mediæval and ancient times commerce was conducted overland or in ships that kept close to shore, and discovery was chiefly made by land travellers. The most famous of these was Herodotus, the fine old Greek writer, who made his way to Egypt and Persia, and Marco Polo, who journeyed overland to China in the thirteenth century, and came back with a story of what he had seen that filled all Europe with interest and surprise.

The Northland Discoverers.—But the great discoverers of the fifteenth century adopted fresh and bolder plans.

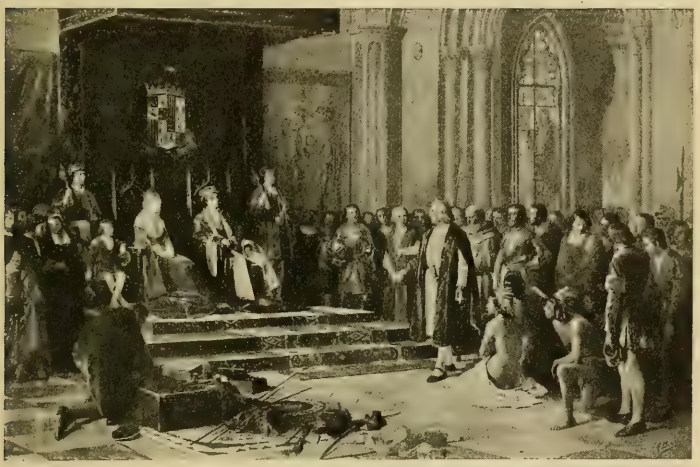
They cut loose from the land and sailed away into unknown seas, in search of new realms afar. Centuries earlier the Northmen of Europe had shown themselves still bolder, for, without compass to guide them and with only their own bold hearts to sustain them, they had sailed far into the frozen seas, discovering Iceland and Greenland and landing on New England's distant shores. But the people of the south did not know what the daring sea-rovers had done, and the true era of discovery had to wait for a later time.

The Mariner's Compass.—It seemed of old like a wild adventure to sail into seas far from land. It was like being lost in a great forest, without knowing in what way to turn. Ships, it is true, had the stars for guides, but there are long times when the skies are overclouded and these shining guides are lost to sight. But about the year 1400 a new guide to ships was brought into use in the mariner's compass, which always points north, by night or day, in sunshine or cloud, and so tells in what direction to steer. This formed a guide which the sailor could always trust, and when it came much of the old fear was lost.

The Seamen of Portugal.—The powers of the magnet had been known long before, but only at this time were they brought actively into use as a sailor's aid. It was the seamen of Portugal who first used them for new discovery. The ships of that country began to sail down the coast of Africa, with the hope of passing round that continent and reaching the rich land of India, which lay thousands of miles to the eastward.

India reached by Sea.—On went these bold sailors, farther and farther to the south, till in 1487 Bartolomeu Di'az reached the southern point of land. His ship was so tossed about there that he called it the Cape of Storms. But

the King of Portugal gave it the better name of the Cape of Good Hope, and sent out a new expedition under Vasco da Gama, which rounded the cape and sailed boldly up the great eastern ocean, reaching India in 1498. This great feat gave Portugal an opening to the rich Indian trade, which before had been carried on by way of the Mediterranean and the Red Sea, with aid from overland caravans.



RECEPTION OF COLUMBUS BY THE COURT ON HIS RETURN FROM THE NEW WORLD

Columbus and his Theory.—But the greatest and most daring discovery of the age was that made by Christopher Columbus. This famous man was born in Genoa, a great city for sailors. Columbus knew well what the Portuguese were doing, and came to the conclusion that India could be reached more easily by sailing west than east. To do this he would have to sail into a mighty unknown sea, on which no ship had ever ventured, and which the people of that time supposed to be the abode of great monsters and ter-

rible dangers. But Columbus was sure that the earth was round, and that by sailing west he could reach the East.

Columbus discovers America.—It took him years to get any monarch to aid him in his enterprise, but at length Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain did so, in the same year that they were besieging the Moorish city of Granada. So, in 1492, Columbus set sail from the little port of Palos, in Spain, and before that year ended he had discovered the great continent of America—though he always believed that it was India he had reached.

The Globe is circumnavigated.—Five years later England sent out a fleet which discovered the coast of North America, and in 1519–1521 the ships of another great navigator, Magellan (Ma-jel′lan), sailed round the globe. Thus in about thirty years Europe learned far more about the surface of the earth than was ever known before, and the path was opened for a vast extension of commerce and a wonderful era of colonization.

The Use of Gunpowder.—There were other things in this period that helped to bring about great changes and an active progress in civilization. One of these was the discovery of gunpowder. This great agent of destruction was now brought actively into use, and soon made great changes in the art of war. The heavy armor of the knights became of no use, and was cast aside, the foot-soldier with his musket taking the place of the knight with his horse and spear. This went far to do away with the old-time feudal system, and thus gave new power to the king and took away from the power of the nobleman.

The Invention of Printing.—While this great invention was being tried in the art of war, a greater one was made in the arts of peace, for the grand art of Printing was dis-

covered. It had been known long before by the Chinese, but they did what is known as block-printing, cutting a whole page on a single block. The new discovery was to print with movable types, each of which formed a single letter.



Statue of Gutenberg.

The first book printed in this way was a Latin Bible, issued by John Gu'tenberg, of Mentz, in 1456. Before that time old books had been copied one by one by hand, with great labor, and they were very scarce and dear. Now they became very much cheaper and far greater numbers were made. Soon there were a hundred readers where there had been one before, and learned men became much more numerous. There had always been readers and students, but they now increased rapidly, and the benefits of education

began to make their way down among the common people, who had so long been densely ignorant.

The Revival of Learning.—Another great event of the fifteenth century was what is known as the Renaissance (reh-nā-säns′) or the Revival of Learning. Renaissance means new birth, and refers to the new love and study of the ancient or classical literature. The greatest thing to bring this about was the capture of Constantinople by the Turks. A large number of learned Greeks, who had kept up their studies of the classical books, now made their way to western Europe, where they opened schools and taught the philosophy, literature, and art of old Greece. They brought many manuscripts of great value with them, and this set the learned men of the West on the search for hidden treasures of ancient lore. The libraries of monasteries and the secret places of old mansions were diligently explored, and many manuscripts of the works of famed Roman and Greek authors were found. The ardent study of classical literature that followed did much to improve men's minds. Europe then had nearly forty universities, and multitudes of students were ready to absorb the new learning.

Artists and Authors.—One grand result of the Renaissance was the multitude of great painters, sculptors, poets, and prose-writers who now appeared. Italy became a great home of art, its famous artists including such noble names as Raphael, Michael Angelo, Leonardo da Vinci, Correggio, Titian, and many others. Painting, sculpture, and architecture thrived as they had not done since the old Athenian days; every land had authors of whom it was justly proud, and science gave signs of entering upon its great field of activity. It was about 1530 that Coper′nicus worked out his

new theory of the solar system, which was the starting-point in modern astronomy.

Progress in Industry.—While these developments were taking place in art, learning, discovery, and adventure, the workingmen of Europe were growing more active and enterprising, and great cities arose which became flourishing centres of manufactures, commerce, and wealth. In all directions Europe was awakening, and in every field of thought and action there was an earnest and promising movement.

Kings growing Absolute.—The monarchs of Europe grew in strength and power in accordance with everything else. The great power of the feudal nobles was at an end; the kings were coming steadily into new authority, and it seemed as if a period of absolute monarchies was near at hand. Even in England, where the people had a parliament to represent them and to control the money of the realm, there was soon to be a struggle of the king for absolute rule.

CHAPTER I

THE REVOLT AGAINST THE CHURCH OF ROME

We have called the period of history with which we have now to deal the "Era of Religious Wars," and with good reason, since the quarrels of religious sects was the cause of many destructive wars that took place. This the reader will see as he goes on.

The Cause of the Religious Wars.—It is necessary to go back to see what brought on these dreadful conflicts, in which vast numbers of people were slain, cities were destroyed, countries were turned into deserts, and many deeds of savage cruelty were done. Taken in all, it is one of the most terrible stories in the history of the world.

The Control of Opinion.—The main cause of it all was that men could not be made to think alike on religious questions. Very long ago, at and before the time that Christianity was adopted by Rome, there were many diverse opinions and much bad feeling between the different sects. But after the fall of Rome the Roman Church became in time supreme over all western Europe, and continued so for many centuries. Those were the centuries of the Dark Ages, when ignorance and superstition existed over all that part of Europe except in Saracen Spain, and little thinking was done.

The Rise of Free Thought.—Then came the new age, when men began to think and write, and when the Crusades stirred up men's minds and taught them many new things. There were new opinions on many subjects, and some of

these, as you may well suppose, were on religion. Men arose who said that the priesthood at Rome did not know everything about the meaning of the Bible and God's plan of salvation, and they began to teach new doctrines, which found many followers.

What heresy meant.—These new religious beliefs were called heresy, and those who accepted them were called heretics. The Roman priesthood, who were quite sure that they had the true and only plan of salvation, and that these new doctrines were false and evil, and would lead men to eternal woe, determined to put them down. They felt that they were the chosen guardians of men's souls, and that if this heresy was allowed to go on it might lead the whole world to destruction. So they determined to use all the force in their power to put an end to it.

The Albigenses.—The first great heresy took place in the south of France, in the country of the Troubadours, about 1200. Here there was much liberty of thought, and certain new religious sects arose known as the Albigenses. The Pope, Innocent III., thought these people, with their new doctrines, very dangerous to religion, and the King of France was called on to lead a crusade against them. We have already told how the Albigenses were attacked by cruel nobles and brutal soldiers and nearly all killed. The Pope had not dreamed of the cruelties these soldiers would commit.

Wycliffe and the Lollards.—More than a hundred years passed before another dangerous heresy appeared. In 1324 there was born in England a religious reformer named Wyc'-liffe. He translated the Bible into English, and copies of his English Bible were widely spread. Those who read it took new beliefs from its texts, and a sect arose called the

Lollards. They became very numerous, and made themselves so unpleasant by their excess of zeal that they had to be put down by force. But the new doctrines continued to be held by many people in England, and the time was to come when they would make themselves felt.

John Huss and his Fate.—The doctrines of Wycliffe made their way to Europe, and gained many believers in Bohe'mia, a country of eastern Germany. John Huss, a priest and professor of Prague, was the leader of the new sect. In 1414 the great council of Constance was called, which condemned his doctrines as dangerous to the cause of religion, and he was burned as a heretic. The next year his friend and follower, Jerome of Prague, was burned in the same way.

The Bohemian Religious War.—After this there was a great religious war in Bohemia. The Emperor Sig'ismund had sworn to protect John Huss and had broken his oath, and the Bohemians rose against him, under a famous general named John Ziska. It was a cruel war, which went on for sixteen years, in which Ziska won many victories over the emperor's armies. He became blind, but that did not stop him from winning victories. In the end the more obstinate of the Hussites were nearly all killed, but the moderate party gained the right to worship in their own way.

Causes of a New Revolt.—All we have stated—the rise of the Albigenses, the Wycliffites, and the Hussites—took place in the mediæval period. But a much greater and more successful outbreak against the authority and the doctrines of the Roman Church was to take place early in the modern period. By that time learning had spread widely, the printing-press was sending out hosts of books, among them many copies of the Bible, and many writers were

saying severe things against the Church. Among those things, they said that the clergy had grown very corrupt and that a great reform was needed. But it was within the Church, not outside it, that they looked for reform. The man who made the great move for it was a monk of Wittenberg, Germany, named Martin Luther.

The Sale of Indulgences.—When Pope Leo X. came to the papal chair he found that nearly all the money of the Church had been spent, and, as he needed money very badly for various purposes, he took several means to obtain it. One of these was by the sale of "indulgences." In the Catholic Church, if a man repented of his sins, the clergy stood ready to endeavor to redeem him from punishment, if he would perform some work of piety or mercy, or aid the Church by paying a sum of money. The punishments meant were those inflicted by the courts of law, and also the pains of Purgatory. They could be remitted only if the repentance was sincere.

Tetzel and his Doings.—In Germany a priest named Tetzel was made the agent for the sale of indulgences. This he, or his sub-agents, did in a way that many deemed very improper, and one that the clergy at Rome would not have sustained if they had known just what he was doing. Little was said by him about the need of repentance, and many thought they could purchase full pardon for sin of any kind, without troubling themselves to repent.

The Protest of Luther.—The imprudent zeal of Tetzel roused much adverse feeling in Germany, both in and out of the Church. Martin Luther, after trying in vain to have the work of Tetzel stopped, drew up a paper in which he gave many reasons for declaring that the sale of indulgences was improper and contrary to Scripture. This he nailed to

the door of the church at Wittenberg, and called on all scholars to examine his reasons and see if they could point out anything wrong in them. This was in 1517.

Luther's Strong Supporters.—Luther's paper was printed and spread all over Europe, where it raised a great controversy. Many agreed with him, and he soon found much support in Germany, even among the princes and nobles, who were angry at seeing so much money taken out of their country to be used in building the great Cathedral of St. Peter in Rome—for this was what Leo needed money for.

Luther and the Pope's Bull.—So far all that Luther had done was to denounce this way of raising money. But he soon went farther and attacked by his writings the whole system of the Roman Catholic Church. Leo X. at first looked on this as of no importance, but as it went on and grew worse he issued a *bull*, or papal decree, in which he condemned the writings of Luther as impious and heretical. Luther retorted by burning the Pope's bull at Wittenberg in the presence of a great multitude.

Luther's Great Friends.—In the three years during which this was going on the daring monk had gained a large body of friends and followers. One of the earliest and most powerful of these was Frederick, Duke of Saxony, but other German princes soon followed him in support of what men began to call the "Reformation."

The Emperor Charles V.—At that time Germany had one of the greatest and most powerful of its emperors. This was Charles V. He began to reign as Charles I. of Spain, but he was descended from several royal families, and by the death of certain kings he became ruler also of Burgundy, Austria, and the Netherlands. Then, in 1519, the Electors of Germany chose him to rule over the Holy

Roman Empire, under the title of the Emperor Charles V. Thus this Spanish king came to lord it over the greatest empire known since the days of Charlemagne.

Luther before the Diet.—It was on this great potentate that the Pope called in his conflict with Martin Luther, asking him to punish the heretic monk. The emperor at once bade Luther appear before the Diet of Worms, an assembly of the princes, nobles, and clergy of Germany, which had come together at Worms in 1521 to consider the affairs of that country. Luther came, for the emperor had sent him a safe-conduct, but he refused to take back a word he had said, unless it could be shown that his writings did not agree with the Bible.

The Safety of Luther.—Luther was allowed to leave in safety, though the Diet declared him a heretic and an outlaw. For fear that he might be followed and taken captive, the Duke of Saxony sent out a party of masked horsemen, who seized him on his way from the Diet, and carried him to a strong mountain castle, where he was kept in secrecy for a year, few knowing where he was hidden.

The New Doctrines spread.—The new doctrines advocated by Luther spread with the greatest rapidity. Soon they were widely extended through Germany and also gained many believers in France, Holland, England, and the countries of the north of Europe. Those who held them were given the name of Protestants, because they protested against the old state of the Church. But they became divided in time into a large number of sects, as bitter against one another as they were against the Church of Rome, and this helped to check the movement.

The Council of Trent and the Inquisition.—Another thing which helped to check Protestantism was a great reform

in the Catholic Church, which was brought about by the celebrated Council of Trent (1545–1563), and which removed the abuses which had been complained of. We should speak here also of the Inquisition, a court established by the Church of Rome to seek out and punish heresy, and which became very active against heretics, large numbers of whom were put to death by burning. As a result of what was done on both sides, the northern or Teutonic nations of Europe became the chief seat of the Protestant faith, while the southern or Latin races remained close adherents of the Roman Catholic Church.

The Wars of the Emperor.—Before closing this chapter we must return to Charles V., who had promised to put an end to heresy. He might have done so if he had not been too busy in other ways. He had a series of wars with France, in one of which he took Francis I., the French king, prisoner. He also had a war with the Sultan of Turkey. It was only after these wars that he could attempt to carry out his promise to put an end to heresy in Germany.

The Victory of the Protestants.—A religious war followed that went on for years. At first the emperor was successful, but afterwards the fortune of war went against him, and in 1552 he was forced to sign a treaty in which the Protestants were given the right to worship God as they pleased. Thus the religious revolution started by Luther won success.

The Emperor abdicates.—It was not long after this that the great emperor, tired of the cares of his great office, retired from the throne and went to a monastery to spend the remainder of his days. He had waged many wars and formed many plans, but they all had failed, and he was weary of his greatness and anxious for peace and rest.

CHAPTER II

PHILIP II. AND THE NETHERLANDS

The Dominion of Philip II.—When Charles V. withdrew from the cares of the throne to spend the rest of his life in a monastery cell he left to his son Philip the crown of Spain, while his brother Ferdinand became Emperor of Germany. At that time, you should bear in mind, Spain was the most powerful nation in Europe. After the discovery of America by Columbus Spain took possession of the richest parts of that great continent, from which there flowed to her a steady stream of gold. Portugal was also conquered by Philip II., and Spain thus got possession of the rich trade of Africa and the East Indies. All this made the new king a very powerful monarch. Yet with all his power and wealth, he spent his life in a vain effort to retain a small country which his father had handed over to him. This was the sea-girt land of the Netherlands.

The Netherlands.—What was then called the Netherlands is now divided into the two kingdoms of Belgium and Netherland, the latter being commonly called Holland. These lie in what was of old a marshland of the northwest, much of which is below the level of the sea. Its inhabitants for centuries worked like so many ants, building great sea walls to keep out the ocean, and in time they turned their marsh district into a splendid stretch of farms and orchards, among which rose many large and flourishing cities. At the time of which we are speaking about three million people dwelt

in this land, which was one of the busiest and wealthiest countries of Europe. It was to become the seat of the most cruel and ruthless of wars.

Protestantism of the Netherlands.—When Luther filled Germany with Protestants, great numbers of the people of the Netherlands took up the new doctrines. This made the Emperor Charles V. very bitter against them. He could not keep the Protestant belief from spreading in Germany, but he determined to kill it out in the Netherlands, and he tried to do so by burning or hanging all who accepted the new faith. Even to read the Bible or to talk about religious matters was enough to hang a man for. In this way thousands were put to death, but in spite of it all the number of Protestants increased.

The Inquisition introduced.—Philip II. was worse than his father. He was a stern bigot, harsh and cruel, a silent, plotting, gloomy fanatic, who said that he would rather kill a hundred thousand people than let any of his subjects leave the Roman Catholic Church. So under him the burnings and hangings in the Netherlands went on worse than ever. The Inquisition was introduced into that land, and thousands of the people fled from the country to save their lives.

The Ruin of the Churches.—Things grew so bad at length that the people became desperate. The nobles leagued together and demanded that the terrible laws should be repealed, but all the redress they got was to be told that heretics might be hanged instead of being burned. This fairly drove the people mad. In 1566 they rose in a perfect frenzy, attacked the churches and monasteries in great mobs, destroyed their images and works of art, and did an endless amount of mischief. Hardly a church in all the Netherlands escaped.

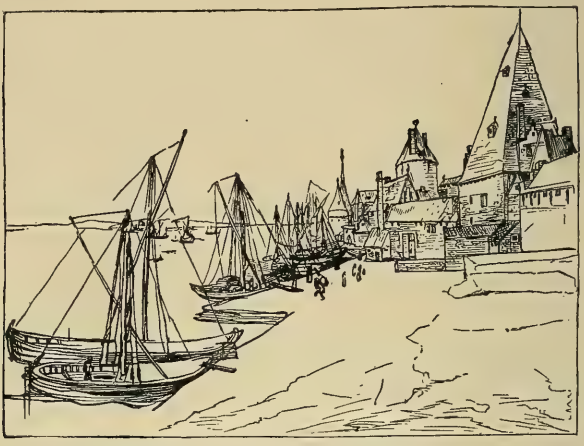
Philip vows Revenge.—When the news of this violent outbreak reached the king it threw him into a fury of rage, and he swore that the people of the Netherlands should pay dearly for what they had done. He sent the Duke of Alva, an able but cruel general, with a strong army, to put down the insurrection, and for five years (1567–1572) the most dreadful and bloodthirsty events took place. On all sides men were seized, imprisoned, tortured, and put to death, and a perfect carnival of blood spread through the devoted country.

William the Silent.—The whole land might have been ruined if a great soldier had not come to its rescue. This was the Prince of Orange, a Protestant monarch and a man of acts more than of words, so quiet that he became known as William the Silent. He led an army from Germany into the Netherlands and began a war which continued for thirty-seven years.

William and the Spanish Commanders.—William was a very able man, but the Spaniards held all the strongholds, and for four years he could do very little, but then he began to make his power felt, and Philip found that he had a costly war on his hands. He sent to the Netherlands his ablest generals, the Duke of Alva, Don John of Austria, the Duke of Parma, all men of great fame, but William the Silent proved a match for them all, and he well earned the title of "The Founder of Dutch Liberties."

The Spanish Fury.—We cannot go into the frightful details of this terrible war, but one of its most dreadful events may be told. Philip had entered upon a costly enterprise. The gold drained from Peru and Mexico vanished from his treasury, and in 1576 he had no money to pay his soldiers. Furious at being left unpaid, the brutal

soldiery broke out in mutiny and marched in bloodthirsty rage through Belgium, pillaging every city they came to and committing the most dreadful outrages. The rich city of Antwerp, at that time one of the leading commercial cities



THE PORT OF ANTWERP IN 1520.
(From drawing by Albert Durer.)

of the world, was utterly ruined, the soldiers slaughtering its inhabitants and committing horrible atrocities. Such was the awful outbreak known as the "Spanish Fury." Antwerp never regained its old supremacy.

The Dutch Republic. Murder of William the Silent.— This dreadful affair forced the provinces of the Netherlands to unite for their mutual defence, and in 1579 the seven provinces of the north combined to form the Dutch Republic, with William of Orange for its president. Soon after that a base and dastardly affair took place. Philip II., incensed at the stern resistance of William to his armies, declared him an outlaw, and offered a rich reward to any one who would kill him. This murderous offer succeeded.

Five attempts were made to kill the prince. Then, on the 10th of July, 1584, he fell dead before the bullet of an assassin. Thus perished one of the noblest characters known in all history.

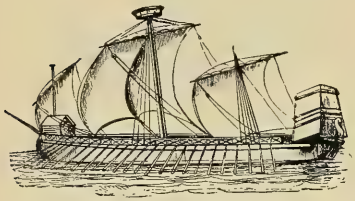
Liberty of the Netherlands.—But the murder of William did not win back the Netherlands to Spain. Prince Maurice, William's son, a youth of only seventeen, took his place, and showed himself a brave and able soldier. England also came to the aid of the Dutch, and later on France began war with Spain. The struggle kept on while Philip lived, but he died in 1598, and a much weaker king, Philip III., took his place. A few more years of war, and then Spain gave up the costly and hopeless contest. A treaty was made in 1609 which brought the war to an end, but Spain was too proud to admit that the small Dutch Republic had defeated her, and did not acknowledge its independence till forty years later.

The Effects of the War.—Thus ended the effort of Spain to destroy Protestantism in the Netherlands. It had continued for more than half a century, and had been attended with some of the most frightful outrages of that age of terror. It led to a long and ruinous war, out of which Spain came with a vast loss in wealth and importance, while the little republic of the north won not only independence but riches. During the war the trade and commerce of Holland greatly increased. Its ships sailed to all quarters of the globe, and it took from Spain and Portugal much of their rich colonial trade. It also obtained large colonies of its own in the East and came to possess the most powerful navy in Europe.

Philip and the French.—We have told here only a part of the story of Philip II. and his wars. He had other wars

in which he was more successful. He took up his father's war with France, and in this he was helped by England, whose queen, Mary, he had married. His armies defeated the French in two great battles, and a treaty was made with France in which Spain gained great advantages.

The Progress of the Turks.—Philip's most successful war was in another quarter, and may be called a religious war, for it was fought to check the progress of the Mohammedan Turks. After conquering Constantinople, the Turks made efforts to win new territory in Europe, and ravaged Hungary with fire and sword. They also sought to make themselves masters of the Mediterranean Sea. They had a powerful fleet, which pillaged the shores of that inland sea and took thousands of Christian captives, who were chained to the oars of their war-galleys. The island of Rhodes was captured from the Knights of St. John, the island of Cyprus was taken, and Malta was saved only by the courage of the knights who had been driven from Rhodes. All Christian Europe was alarmed by the progress of the infidels, and the Pope, Pius V., called on the princes for defence.



A Three-Masted Galley of the Sixteenth Century.

The Battle of Lepanto.—Spain and Venice responded. An immense fleet was prepared, and Don John of Austria, Philip's half-brother, was placed in command. No abler commander could have been found in all Europe. It was in 1571, in the Gulf of Lepanto, on the coast of Greece, that the two fleets, Christian and Moslem, met, and here was fought one of the greatest naval battles the Mediterranean

had ever seen. There were more than six hundred ships and two hundred thousand men engaged in desperate conflict. When the battle ended the Turkish fleet was nearly all destroyed. Don John had won a splendid victory, and had the joy of setting free thousands of Christians who were found chained to the oars of the Turks.

The End of the Turkish Invasion.—The battle of Lepanto was a memorable one in history. It put an end to the conquests of the Turks, which had gone on for many centuries. A century later, in 1683, a great Turkish army besieged and nearly captured the city of Vienna, but it was driven off by the Polish general Sobieski. With this victory the progress of the Asiatic invaders of Europe, which had continued since history began, came to an end.

The Revolt of the Moors.—The victory at Lepanto was a great thing to Philip's credit, but the same cannot be said of his dealings with the Jews and the Moors of Spain. These he treated with a shameful and foolish cruelty which did immense harm to his kingdom. Some chapters back you were told how King Ferdinand, after the conquest of Granada, gave the Moors the right to keep their old religion. Philip broke this pledge. He told them that they should not use their old language, that they must give Christian names to their children and must send them to Christian schools. The Moors rose in rebellion, and there was a destructive war in which the armies of Philip put down the rebels with a terrible severity. So bloody was the conflict that in large districts of Spain nearly all the people were killed and they were left like deserts. This took place in 1571, the year of the battle of Lepanto. Not many years afterwards Philip III. drove all the Moors, more than a half a million in number, out of Spain. They were the most skilful and industrious

people of the country, and it never recovered from the loss of their labor.

The Invincible Armada.—We have almost finished the story of how Philip II. ruined Spain, but there remains the most famous event of all, the tale of the "Invincible Armada." Philip had several reasons for hating and wishing to punish England, but the chief one was that it had become a hot-bed of Protestantism. He hoped to serve the heretical island as he had tried to serve the Netherlands, so he made vast and costly preparations for its invasion and conquest.

Philip's Fleet.—Never had there been seen a fleet of such powerful vessels as that which Philip built and sent out. Of its one hundred and twenty-nine ships many were of the greatest size then known, and they carried three thousand cannon and twenty thousand men. In the Netherlands were thirty-four thousand veteran troops ready to join in the enterprise. In July, 1588, this formidable fleet entered the English Channel, going, as Philip fondly hoped, to the conquest of the troublesome island.

The Defeat of the Armada.—But rarely did so great an adventure so dismally fail. Thirty British ships sailed out to meet the Armada. They were smaller than the unwieldy Spanish ships, which they could outsail easily. For a week a running fight was kept up, the light and swift British ships darting like hornets around the great war-vessels of Spain, and stinging them so sharply that at length they fled for shelter to the harbor of Calais. Here the English sent in fire-ships at night, burning several vessels and causing great alarm. When day broke the British attacked the Spaniards fiercely, and handled their ships and guns with such skill that the Spaniards again sought safety in flight. The "Invincible" fleet had been thoroughly whipped. On


MOHAMMEDAN EMPIRE
TO 1683
Mohammedan Empire 1359
Acquisitions to 1451
" Mohammed II 1451-1481
" to 1520 (Selim. 1512-1520)
" Suleimans II 1520-1566
" to 1683
C.S.H.& CO., N.Y.
Longitude East from Ferro
GERMANIC EMPIRE
POLAND
RUSSIA
HUNGARY
Transylvania
Podolia
Moldavia
Wallachia
Bessarabia
Khanate of the Crimea
CRIMEA
Bosnia
Servia
Bulgaria
BLACK SEA
CASPIAN SEA
Montenegro
Albania
Macedonia
Romania
ANADOLI
Karamania
Hamid
Aidin
Tekke
SYRIA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Crete
Cyprus
TRIPOLI
Barca
EGYPT
Vienna
Prague
Tokay
Sambor
Breslau
Kudak
Azov
Don R.
Kaffa
Taman
Kuban R.
Gotthard
Agram
Mohacs
Ofen
Szegedin
Grosswardein
Weissenberg
Tenesvar
Belgrade
Bender
Kerman
Kilia
Braila
Dobrudscha
Danube R.
Varna
Rome
Antivari
Naples
Palermo
Sicily
Malta
Phillippopolis
Constantinople
Scutari
Rodosto
Gallipoli
Salonika
Durazzo
Butrinto
Korfu
Epirus
Thessalonia
Arta
Lepanto
Patras
Corinth
Morea
Athens
Lemnos
Lesbos
Chios
Brussa
Karasu
Sivas
Sinope
Samsun
Trebizond
Trebezond
Karaman
Tarsus
Adana
Adalia
Rhodes
Naxos
Madon
Cerigo
Canea
Candia
Nicosia
Beirut
Damascus
Jerusalem
Jafa
Gaza
Damietta
Alexandria
Rosetta
Tripolis
Mesurata
Bengazi
Kremma
30
40
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60
70

its return home it met with dreadful storms, and of the great fleet which set out from Lisbon only a wretched third returned.

Spain loses its Prestige.—Philip had ruined Spain. He had wasted her money and her strength, in the effort to destroy Protestantism, and had met with nothing but defeat. When he came to the throne Spain was the leading country of Europe, and it was far the richest, for it had the great wealth in gold and silver of America to draw upon. He wasted its wealth in his incessant wars, and brought it down to a much lower level, and it continued to sink till it became only a third- or fourth-rate power. For many generations after Philip's reign Spain had no history worth telling.

CHAPTER III

HENRY VIII. AND THE CHURCH OF ENGLAND

Henry VII.—You have read how the Wars of the Roses ended in the victory of Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, over Richard III. Henry became king as Henry VII. and proved an able monarch. It was in his days that Columbus discovered America and the Cabots sailed from England to the American continent. He died in 1509 and his son took the throne as Henry VIII., the second king of the Tudor line.

A Critical Period.—Henry VIII. came to the throne at a critical period. It was the time of the wars of Charles V., of Spain and Germany, with Francis I. of France and of the great revolt against the Church of Rome caused by the teachings of Martin Luther. There were several important events in Henry's reign, but the most important of all was his conflict with the Church of Rome.

The Defender of the Faith.—Henry VIII. did not attack the papal authority with any idea of "reform." He was at first an ardent Catholic, and he wrote so strong a treatise against the doctrines of Luther that the Pope gave him the title of "Defender of the Faith." But it was not long before he was himself in conflict with the Pope, and this on grounds with which religion had nothing to do.

Henry seeks a Divorce.—While he was still Prince of Wales Henry had married Catharine of Aragon, daughter of the famous Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. She had been the wife of his brother before him, and, after living with her

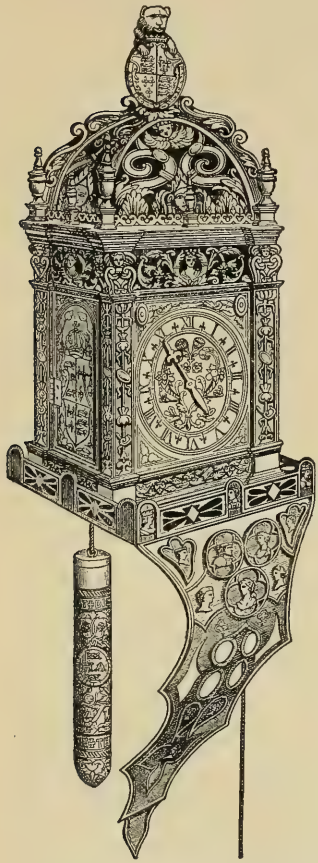
for eighteen years, he tried to get rid of her, saying that his conscience would not permit him to live longer with his brother's widow. Most people think the real reason was that he had fallen in love with a pretty and lively young lady of the court named Anne Boleyn (Bool'en).

The Fall of Wolsey.—Henry asked the Pope, Clement VII., to grant him a divorce from Catharine. The Pope hesitated about doing so, for both political and religious reasons, and the matter went on for two years without any settlement. We must speak here of Cardinal Wolsey, Archbishop of York, and Henry's trusted and able minister, a man of great wealth and power. It was he who had to deal with the Pope, but he failed to obtain a decision. Henry was a hasty and violent man, and at length he blamed Wolsey for the delay and took from him all his places of wealth and dignity. He even had him arrested for high treason. This fall from his high estate broke Wolsey's heart, and he died saying, "Had I served my God as diligently as I have served my king, He would not have given me over in my gray hairs."

Cromwell's Advice.—The minister who took Wolsey's place was named Thomas Cromwell, and was a bold and daring man. He advised Henry to waste no more time dealing with the Pope, but to take the law in his own hands. This advice suited the hot-tempered English king. He at once secretly married his new lady love, Anne Boleyn, and then obtained a divorce from Catharine through the Archbishop of Canterbury, whom he had just appointed.

The Contest with the Pope.—Henry had now broken from and defied the authority of Rome, and in 1534 Clement declared him excommunicated from the fellowship of the Church. Three centuries before this would have

been a terrible blow against a king. We know how such a sentence humbled Henry IV. of Germany. But times had changed and the English people supported their king. Parliament went so far as to declare that the Pope had no authority in England, and to make Henry the Supreme Head of the Church in that kingdom, with control over all the clergy and all the Church revenues. Any one who denied this new authority of the king was to be held guilty of high treason.



CLOCK GIVEN BY HENRY VIII. TO ANNE BOLEYN.

Henry as Head of the Church.—Here was a revolution in the Church greater than that in Germany, for it involved a whole kingdom. Henry, the new head of the Church in England, drew up a creed of his own, which he said everybody must accept or be punished. One thing he did was to put an end to the monasteries, of which there were many in England. They were rich, and he wanted their lands and money, and made the excuse that they were vile and corrupt.

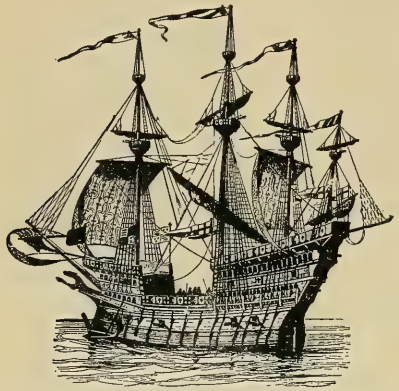
A Protestant Persecution.—All this violence, as you may imagine, stirred up much bitter feeling in England, where

the great body of the people were Catholics. Some of them in the north broke out in rebellion, but the king put them down with great severity. Just what Henry believed no one knew, for he did not know himself. Now he said one thing and now another, and he persecuted Catholics and Protestants alike. At one time three Catholics who denied that he was the true Head of the Church, and three Protestants who denied something else, were dragged in the same sled to be executed for their crimes. Whatever Henry chose to say he believed became the state religion of England.

Henry and his Wives.—Such was the man to whom England owed its new Church. He dealt with his wives in the same tyrannical way as he did with the religion of his people. In three years he got tired of Anne Boleyn and had her head cut off on some convenient charge; and the next day he married Jane Seymour, another lady of the court. She died the next year, and Henry then married a German princess, named Anne of Cleves, whom he had never seen. When he saw her he did not like her looks, and in a few months he had her divorced on a trifling excuse, and married another young woman named Catharine Howard. She was another who did not please him long, for he treated her as he had done Anne Boleyn, having her head cut off on the charge of improper conduct. One would think that Henry must have found it hard to get a new wife after all this, but Catharine Parr, widow of Lord Latimer, consented to marry him. She knew how to humor him, and lived with him in some kind of comfort for five years. Then, in 1547, Henry himself died, no doubt much to the relief of many of his subjects.

Edward IV.—Henry VIII. left three children, Mary, Elizabeth, and Edward, the children of his first three wives.

The youngest of these, Edward, succeeded to the throne. But he was only nine years old, and died when he was fifteen, so he reigned without ruling. Those who managed the government were Protestants, and they made new changes in the state religion. Since then the Church of England has remained much as they left it.



MAN-OF-WAR ON WHICH HENRY VIII. WENT TO FRANCE IN 1520.
(From drawing by Holbein.)

The Catholic Queen Mary.—In 1553 Mary came to the throne. She was the daughter of Catharine of Aragon and was a fervent Catholic. She married the Catholic prince Philip, soon to be Philip II. of Spain, and hastened to bring back the Catholic worship in England. Parliament was ready to do all she asked, as it had done all that Henry had asked. Only one thing it refused to do, this being to give back the property of the Church, much of which now belonged to members of Parliament, who felt like holding on to what they had got, without regard to how they obtained it.

The Protestants persecuted.—As for the new state religion of England, it seemed to be at an end. The Protestants were persecuted, as the Catholics had been, and two or three hundred of them were put to death for their belief. In those times Catholics and Protestants were much alike in persecuting those who did not agree with them in opinion.

England under Elizabeth.—Mary died after a reign of five years, and Elizabeth, the daughter of Anne Boleyn, became queen of England. This was in 1558, when she was twenty-five years old. She reigned till 1603, and this period was one of the greatest in English history. England advanced in manufactures, in commerce, in political power, until it rose from the position of a second-rate to that of a first-rate kingdom. Its ships were seen on all seas, its commerce extended to every part of the civilized world, and in many other ways it grew great and famous. One of the things that made it prominent was the defeat of the Spanish Armada, which was looked on as a great triumph for the Protestant cause, and did much to destroy the high standing of Spain.

The Church of England restored.—Elizabeth was a woman of strong will, great courage, and excellent judgment. She was not troubled much by religious scruples, but she knew that she must seek support from the Protestants, for the Catholics were opposed to her, for the reason given below, so she restored the Church of England and had severe laws passed under which many Catholics were put to death. She found Parliament quite as ready to do all she wished as Henry and Mary had done. At this time Parliament was not as independent as it became later on.

Mary, Queen of Scots.—Here we must speak of Mary, Queen of Scots, daughter of James V. of Scotland, who the Catholics said was the real heir to the English throne. They claimed that the marriage of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn was not legal, and that Elizabeth had no right to the throne. Mary was a beautiful and charming girl, who was brought up a Catholic and married Francis II., King of France. When he died she returned to Scotland, where she became queen.

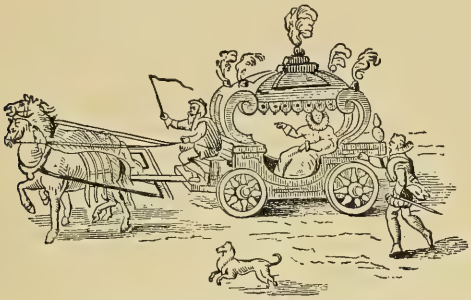
The Career of a Queen.—At that time there were many Protestants in Scotland, who were bitterly opposed to their Catholic queen. She acted unwisely in various ways, and when her husband, Lord Darnley, was killed she was thought to have had something to do with it. So the Scottish lords put her in prison and forced her to give up the throne to her young son James. Soon afterwards Mary escaped from prison and fled to England, where she hoped that Elizabeth would help her. But the English queen was afraid of her, and had her confined in a strong castle.



MARY STUART, QUEEN OF SCOTS.

The Fate of the Queen of Scots.—For nineteen years Mary remained a prisoner in English castles. During this time there were many plots to rescue her and to make her queen of England and Scotland both. The Prince of Orange was killed by an assassin, and Elizabeth did not know how soon she might suffer the same fate. At length, in 1586, a plot to murder Elizabeth and put Mary on the throne was discovered, and it was said that Mary was concerned in it. She was tried for the crime, and the court said she was guilty and worthy of death. Elizabeth hesitated about signing the warrant for her execution, but at last it was signed and sent, and on a morning in February, 1587, Mary Stuart was beheaded in the hall of Fotheringay Castle. Thus ended the career of this beautiful and admired woman, whose folly and lack of principle were the main causes of her cruel fate.

Later Protestant Persecutions.—Little more need be said about the progress of religious change in England. Protestantism there, as on the Continent, soon developed into many sects, and the Church of England was kept as



QUEEN ELIZABETH'S COACH.
(Braun "Civitates Orbis Terrarum," 1572.)

busy persecuting Protestants as Catholics. Catholics, Puritans, and Quakers emigrated to America and founded colonies there, and in the great civil war, of which we have yet to tell, it was the Protestant reformers who dethroned and beheaded the king. In Scotland, at a later time, the Scotch Covenanters were terribly persecuted, and for a long time all sects alike tried to put down those who dared to think in a different way from them on the great subject of religious belief.

CHAPTER IV

THE RELIGIOUS WARS OF FRANCE

Italy the Prey of Europe.—During the latter part of the Middle Ages Italy was the prey of Europe. The emperors of Germany ravaged the north, Spain laid hands on the south, and France brought war and disaster to the whole land. We must give this brief chapter from the history of Italy before we deal with the religious wars of France.

Louis XI. and his Son.—In a previous chapter you have been told of the famous King Louis XI., and how he made himself master of all France. Now we must deal with the kings who followed him. Charles VIII., his son, had no great nobles to deal with, so he thought he would go abroad and make himself as great and famous as Alexander or Charlemagne.

Charles VIII. in Italy.—At that time Spain held the kingdom of Naples, in the south of Italy. Charles said he had a better claim to it than Spain, and he led a strong army into Italy, some of whose strongest cities opened their gates to him. When he entered Naples he fancied he had conquered the country, and gave himself up to feasts and tournaments while Spain, Germany, and the Pope were forming a league against him. So the ambitious Charles had to get out of Italy faster than he had entered it, and was glad enough to escape with his army from the scene of his victories.

Louis XII. and his Wars.—His son, Louis XII., followed in his footsteps, and tried to conquer Italy, but after years of

war he found himself beaten on all sides and was glad to make peace. All he had to show for his dream of fame was an empty treasury, slaughtered soldiers, and desolated lands.

The Career of Francis I.—The next king was Francis I., of whose wars with Charles V. we have already spoken. He came to the throne in 1515 and, like his father and grandfather, led his armies into Italy and brought more woe to that unhappy land. In 1525 he met with a terrible defeat from the armies of Charles V. and was taken prisoner and held till he paid a costly ransom.

The Duke of Bourbon.—Now we have to tell about a terrible result from the useless wars in Italy. There was a great French nobleman, the Duke of Bourbon, Constable of France, who felt himself injured by the king and left France to join the armies of Spain. It was he who led the army that took Francis prisoner, and in this way he revenged himself on the king.

Bourbon's Army.—After that was done Bourbon led an army into Italy. The teachings of Martin Luther had now filled Germany with Protestants, and Bourbon's army was largely made up of men of this new faith. It also contained many adventurers, men who were little better than savages. Furious because they had not been paid, these fierce soldiers clamored for spoil, and Bourbon led them to Rome that they might pay themselves. They raised ladders and clambered over the walls, but their general was killed as he mounted a ladder, and his men were left without a leader.

The Ravage of Rome.—The scene that followed was worse than what took place when the Goths and the Vandals captured Rome. The furious soldiers poured into the city, and held it at their will for seven months, plundering and committing every outrage which such a brutal host, with-

out a leader to hold them in check, could think of. The Pope, Clement VII., was kept a prisoner and suffered the greatest indignities from his Lutheran captors. In all the history of Rome it had never suffered so much as it did from this "civilized" army. But at length there came a fearful plague, which carried off soldiers and Romans alike, and of all Bourbon's army scarcely five hundred lived to carry their spoils from the city.



THE HOUSE OF CALVIN.

Civil War in France.—Now we come to the time of the civil wars of France, in which, instead of invading foreign lands, the French were kept busy killing one another at home in the cause of what they chose to call religion.

Persecution of Heretics.—We have told how, three hundred years before the time of Francis I., a Christian sect called the Albigenses, differing from the Catholics in faith, arose in France and were put down with fire and blood. In the time of Francis I. a new heresy appeared in the land, and was treated in the same dreadful manner.

John Calvin and his Doctrines.—Luther, as we have said, was not the only religious reformer of his time. There were others, who taught different doctrines. One of these was John Calvin, a Frenchman, who had to flee from France, and who made his home at Geneva, in Switzerland,

where he taught doctrines which spread widely in surrounding countries. There were in time large numbers of Calvinists in France, where they became known as Huguenots (hū′gē-nots).

The Massacre of the Waldenses.—But we must speak here of the Walden′ses, a religious sect which had been in France ever since the time of the Albigenses. There were large numbers of them in Piedmont and Provence in the time of Francis I., and he gave enough time from his wars with the Emperor Charles V. to send a murderous army against these poor villagers. The Huns of old could not have been more savage than the army which Francis sent among these humble people. Thousands of them were killed by the sword. Thousands more were burned alive, and their land was left a wilderness. Only a few of them remained, hidden in the mountains, to keep their faith alive to later times.

The Calvinists of France.—But the Calvinists of France would not be dealt with in that way. They were too many and too powerful. Many of the nobles took up the new faith, and even in the royal palace Calvinistic hymns and prayers could be heard. Henry II., the next king, tried to get rid of them by persecution, but all he did was to add to their number and strength, and in the reigns of his three sons—Francis, Charles, and Henry—the new doctrines gave rise to long and terrible civil wars. At the time these wars began there were in France about four hundred thousand Huguenots, as the Protestants were called, many of them belonging to the higher classes and the nobility.

The Chiefs of the Factions.—Henry II. had married an Italian princess, Catherine de Mé′dicis, a wily, plotting woman, who was the real ruler in France during much of

the time her sons were on the throne. The principal Catholic leaders were Francis, Duke of Guise (Gweez), a famous general, and his brother, Charles, Cardinal of Lorraine′. At the head of the Huguenots were the King of Navarre′ and the Prince of Condé, both of them heirs to the French throne, and Gaspard de Coligny (Co-lēn-ye′), Admiral of France. You may see that the greatest men in the kingdom were at the head of the two factions, and the war that followed was as much political as it was religious.



CATHERINE DE MÉDICIS IN HER YOUNG DAYS.

The Guises and their Enemies.—Francis II., who married the beautiful Mary, Queen of Scots, was a sickly boy of sixteen when he came to the throne, and died in a year afterwards. He was under control of the Guises, who began to persecute the Huguenots. They, in their turn, formed a plot to obtain charge of the young king and put him under the control of the Prince of Condé; but the plot was discovered, and the Guises revenged themselves by executing more than a thousand of their enemies. Then Francis died and his brother took the crown as Charles IX.

The Civil Wars.—Charles was then only ten years old, and his mother ruled in his name. She tried to please both parties, but they hated each other too bitterly to dwell in peace, and soon the country was torn by terrible civil wars.

Before the struggle ended there were no less than eight wars, beginning in 1562 and ending in 1628.

A Story of Woe.—We cannot tell the long story of sieges, battles, conspiracies, treacheries, and murders which marked these woful wars. All we have space for is the most notorious and dreadful event of all, the terrible Massacre of St. Bartholomew. In all the religious wars of Europe there was no more frightful example of human malignity than this.

A Royal Marriage.—The King of Navarre had been killed in battle and his son Henry had taken his place on the throne. He was to become a great king and a great soldier, but as yet he was only a boy. Peace came between the factions, and Catherine de Médicis offered her daughter, the Princess Marguerite, in marriage to the young king. Henry came to Paris for the wedding, which was to take place on August 18, 1572, and numbers of the leading Huguenots came to witness the ceremony.

The Attempt to kill Coligny.—Among those who came was the Admiral Coligny, who soon won the confidence of the weak young King of France. When Catherine saw her son under this influence she feared that her own power would be lost, and an assassin was engaged to make way with the noble admiral. Coligny was shot at and wounded in the arm. When the Huguenots heard of this treacherous act they swore revenge, and Catherine, wild with fear, determined to save herself by destroying her enemies.

The Massacre of St. Bartholomew.—Catherine formed a plot to murder all the Huguenots in Paris. The Guises were with her in this dreadful scheme, and the Catholics of Paris were secretly informed. By a false tale of a plot of the Huguenots to murder him and his family she induced

Charles to sign the order for the massacre, and after midnight on St. Barthol'omew's Day (August 24, 1572) a bell began to toll. This was the signal for the massacre, and instantly it began. Lights gleamed, bands of armed men filled the streets; the dreadful cry, "Kill! kill!" rang out;



Watching the Massacre of St. Bartholomew.

Huguenots were cut down on all sides, and a number of murderers, led by Guise himself, broke into Coligny's house, killed him while at prayer, and flung his dead body into the street. For three days and nights the fearful slaughter went on; from three thousand to ten thousand Huguenots are estimated to have been killed; orders to murder were sent to other cities of France, and from twenty thousand to thirty thousand people fell victims to this infamous decree.

Henry III. and the Murder of Guise.—King Charles did not live long after this terrible affair. Day and night the

horrible scenes he had witnessed were before his eyes, and he died a victim of remorse. Henry III. followed him on the throne in 1574, and throughout his reign of fifteen years war desolated the country, the Huguenots fighting for revenge, the Catholics "to extirpate heresy." In the end Henry, jealous of the growing power of the Duke of Guise, had him killed in the palace, and then fled for protection to the Huguenot camp. A few months later he was himself killed by a Dominican monk.

Henry of Navarre.—With the death of Henry III. the Valois line of monarchs came to an end. The nearest heir to the throne was the Huguenot chief, the gallant Henry of Navarre, head of the Bourbon family. But the Catholic League were determined that he should not reign, and it took five years of war for him to win the crown. The end came at the famous battle of Iv′ry, where Henry's white plume led his army to a signal victory. Yet before he could sit in peace on the throne he was forced to desert the Huguenot faith and accept that of the Catholics. He was crowned at Paris in 1594. It is not likely that he changed his belief, but he pretended to, which answered the purpose.

Peace and Prosperity.—Now, for the first time in many years, an assured peace ruled in France. Henry set himself to bring back the prosperity of the country. He restored the finances, built public edifices, encouraged manufactures, and endowed libraries and schools. In 1598 he issued the celebrated Edict of Nantes, which gave the Huguenots freedom of worship in France and the right to hold office, and set aside for them many places of refuge, chief among them being the strong city of La Rochelle (Ro-shel′). In 1610 the prosperous reign of Henry IV. came to an end, he being slain by an assassin as his predecessor had been.

Richelieu and the Huguenots.—We may briefly close the story of the religious wars of France. Henry was succeeded by his son as Louis XIII., and the new king chose for his chief minister Cardinal Richelieu (Rish′e-lu), the most famous of statesmen. We shall speak here only of Richelieu's dealings with the Huguenots. They were too powerful to please him, and their chiefs were opposing the king's authority and threatening to break up the kingdom and form a government of their own. Richelieu led an army against La Rochelle, their great stronghold, captured it after a year's siege, and levelled its walls to the ground. This, which took place in 1628, ended the long era of religious wars, which are estimated to have cost France a million lives and the destruction of three or four hundred hamlets and towns.

Revocation of the Edict of Nantes.—The Edict of Nantes was sustained by Richelieu, and the Protestants enjoyed freedom of worship. But in 1685 Louis XIV. revoked this famous edict, and a new persecution of the Huguenots began. France suffered as much from this as the Huguenots themselves. About three hundred thousand of her most industrious and skilful inhabitants were driven from the kingdom, and some of her most flourishing industries were ruined. The Huguenots took their arts and skill to Holland and England, which countries warmly welcomed them, and many of them emigrated to America.

CHAPTER V

THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR

A Terrible War.—We have now to speak of the last and most terrible of the religious wars of Europe, the Thirty Years' War of Germany, which raged from 1618 to 1648. This dread conflict left much of Germany in the condition of a wilderness, most of its people slaughtered, some of its fairest cities reduced to ashes, and its fertile fields abandoned to the dominion of the weed and the bramble. Generations of men passed away before the effects of this frightful war were removed.

The Story of a Century.—It was in 1517 that Martin Luther nailed to the door of the church in Wittenberg that defiance to the Pope that stirred up all Europe and set many of the nations at war. In 1618, almost exactly a century later, the great struggle in Germany began. There had been a religious war there before, when Charles V. tried to put down the Protestant princes, and failed. But since then, though much bitter feeling had existed, there had been no war, and a very large proportion of the people of Germany had become Protestants.

The Bohemians in Rebellion.—The new war began in Bohemia, the land where John Huss and Jerome of Prague had died for their religion, and where the blind General Zisca had fought so valiantly for his faith. This took place two centuries before, but the people of Bohemia had not forgotten their old history; and when Ferdinand, their Catholic

king, began to interfere with their churches, they rose in rebellion, threw two of the king's councillors out of the windows of the palace, and elected a Protestant for their king. Frederick V. of the Palatinate, son-in-law of James I. of England, was chosen.

Ferdinand's Triumph and Revenge.—Soon armies were in motion, and the two kings of Bohemia were at war. Frederick was defeated in his first battle, and Ferdinand then set to work to put down the rebellion by force of arms. This he did with terrible severity. The Protestants of Bohemia were so fearfully dealt with that, when Ferdinand's work was over, few of them were left in that devoted land. Ferdinand had taken a dreadful revenge.

The Emperor and the Danish King.—In 1619, the year after the war began, Ferdinand was elected Emperor of Germany, as Ferdinand II. This gave great alarm to the Protestants of Germany, who now found themselves facing a powerful enemy. But it was not till 1625 that any of them took active part, and then Christian IV., King of Denmark, came forth as the champion of the Protestant cause. He had the support of England and Holland.

Wallenstein's Army and King Christian's Defeat.—The Danish king had as opponent Count Wal'lenstein, one of the most noted commanders in Europe. This famous general offered to raise an army for the emperor at his own expense, if he might support it from the country of the enemy. His offer was taken, and thousands of the wildest spirits of Germany flocked to his ranks, drawn by the promise of liberty to plunder. It was an army of bandits, who left a desert of woe and wretchedness wherever they passed. The Protestants were driven back to right and left, and Wallenstein invaded Denmark with one hundred thousand

men, King Christian being forced to flee to the Danish islands and sue for peace. This was granted in 1629.

The Dismissal of Wallenstein.—Ferdinand had triumphed. All Germany seemed to lie helpless before him.



CASTING CANNON-BALLS.

He forced the Protestants to restore to the Catholic Church the lands and offices of which they had taken possession in defiance of their treaty with Charles V. Then he took a step which was not to his advantage. He dismissed Wallenstein from his service. This great general had made enemies on all sides by his pride and haughtiness and the terrible outrages of his army. Catholics and Protestants alike hated him, and the complaints were so bitter that Ferdinand felt forced to get rid of him.

Gustavus Adolphus and his Army.—It was not long before the emperor felt the need of Wallenstein, for he had a new and great enemy to face. To the north of Germany lies the peninsula of Sweden and Norway, then a land of Protestants. Gusta'vus Adol'phus, King of Sweden, was one

of the ablest soldiers of the age. It was he who came next upon the field, and with whom Ferdinand had now to deal. Moved by the misfortunes of his fellow-Protestants of Germany, Gustavus came to their aid in 1630 with a small army of sixteen thousand men. But these men were veteran soldiers, they were splendidly drilled and disciplined, and were devoted to their leader. The people of Vienna laughed at Gustavus, calling him the "Snow King," and saying that he would melt away under the southern sun. But they soon found that they had to deal with a man who knew all about the art of war. By the next summer he had taken from the emperor eighty towns and fortresses.

The Destruction of Magdeburg.—Ferdinand had dismissed his best general, but there was another, Count Tilly, the head of the Holy Catholic League, and a skilled veteran in war. To this old and tried soldier he gave the command of his armies. In 1631 Tilly laid siege to the city of Mag'deburg, which he soon took by storm and set his bandit soldiers loose upon it. For three days they robbed and murdered at will, and when they were done the city, with thirty thousand of its inhabitants, had perished by fire and sword. All was burned except two churches and a few hovels, and all Europe heard with horror of the savage act.

Gustavus and Tilly at Leipsic.—So far the Protestant princes had not helped Gustavus, and all his aid came from England and France. But the terrible fate of Magdeburg filled them with dread, and the King of Saxony now joined the Swedish king. Soon afterwards Tilly was brought to battle on the plain of Leipsic (Līp'sic) and suffered a terrible defeat. Gustavus then pushed southward into the heart of Germany, and when Tilly attempted to stop him he was

again defeated and received a fatal wound. Ferdinand had lost his trusty general.

Wallenstein again in Command.—The Emperor Ferdinand was now in serious trouble. He was forced to humble himself and ask Count Wallenstein to take command again, and this the haughty soldier would not do unless he had absolute control. This the emperor gave him, and soon he had another army, made up of men many of whom were the off-scourings of Europe. But the famous general had found his match. In 1632 he met Gustavus on the famous battle-field of Lützen, near Leipsic, and suffered defeat.

Gustavus dies in Victory.—The Swedes marched to battle singing "God is a strong tower," and with their great commander at their head. The conflict was a terrible one. Three times that day the field was lost and won. At length Gustavus fell mortally wounded, but his well-drilled men fought on with all their old courage, and that night Wallenstein, beaten in the fray, crept secretly away, leaving his colors and cannon behind.

Wallenstein killed by an Assassin.—Gustavus, the great leader of the Protestants, was dead, but the Swedes were triumphant and the war went on. Ferdinand, who was afraid of Wallenstein, had him killed by assassins. Thus both the great leaders were dead. Ox'enstiern, the chancellor of Sweden, was at the head of affairs and had good generals under him, and the ruinous struggle continued until 1635, when most of the Protestant states made treaties, to their own advantage, with the emperor. But there were armies still in the field, and the war did not cease for thirteen years longer.

France takes Part in the War.—The struggle now became more a political than a religious war, and France took

the most active part in it, coming to the aid of the Swedes. Richelieu, the great French minister, wished to weaken the emperor and humble Austria, and the Swedish and French armies fought together against those of the empire. Hither and thither went the hosts of war, fighting when they met and leaving ruin wherever they passed. Though Tilly and Wallenstein were gone, the dreadful work they had started was not at an end.

The Victories of France.—Ferdinand died, and his son, Ferdinand III., became emperor. Richelieu and Louis XIII. died, but the new king and minister of France kept up the war. The French had two great generals, Condé and Turenne′, in the field, and won so many victories that it seemed as if all the empire would be conquered. Only when affairs were in this desperate state did the emperor yield to the demands of his enemies and sign a treaty of peace.

Religious Freedom gained.—The peace of Westphalia, signed in 1648, brought to an end the religious wars of Europe, which had gone on for a century and a quarter. From that time forward religious freedom was to exist in Germany, Catholics, Lutherans, and Calvinists being put on the same footing. But the freedom was for the princes, not for the people. Every prince was given the right to decide upon the religion of his state and to banish all who did not accept it, allowing them three years in which to emigrate. This law sent many emigrants to America.

Political Changes.—The treaty also made important political changes. Holland and Switzerland were declared to be independent states. The province of Alsace was given to France, and Sweden got a long strip of land on the shore of the Baltic Sea. The monarch of Austria was still to

have the title of emperor, but nearly all his power was gone outside of Austria itself. Such were the political and the religious results of the celebrated Treaty of Westphalia. Its greatest good was that it put an end to the terrible religious wars.

The Frightful Work of the War.—Now we must say something more about the frightful work done in Germany by the Thirty Years' War. When it ended much of Germany was a ruin. Of its thirty million people only twelve million remained. Nearly two-thirds of the population had perished amid infinite woe and terror. Many flourishing cities were left as "mere shells." In many villages the people were gone and only the starving dogs remained. Berlin had less than three hundred people left. Everywhere one gazed on burnt mansions and ruined hovels. To travel through the country was like a journey in a fire-swept wilderness. Trade and manufactures had almost ceased to exist, and learning, literature, the fine arts, and the laws of morality had vanished. The power of the emperor was nearly at an end, and Germany was a medley of over two hundred petty states, each of them aping the ways of great monarchies. For a century Germany had no history worth the telling. "The whole land," as Carlyle tells us, "had been tortured, torn to pieces, wrecked, and brayed as in a mortar." Such was the terrible result of the most frightful of modern wars.

SUMMARY OF HISTORY OF RELIGIOUS WARS.

The German and Dutch Religious Revolt.

Wycliffe, the English reformer 1324
John Huss, the Bohemian, burned 1414
Ziska and the religious war in Bohemia 1418–1434

Tetzel and the sale of indulgences 1502–1517
Luther and his protest 1517
Charles V. elected emperor 1519
Luther burns the Pope's bull 1520
Luther before the Diet at Worms 1521
The Council of Trent 1545–1563
Charles V. defeated by the German Protestants 1552
Charles V. abdicates 1552
Philip II. succeeds to the throne of Spain 1552
Revolt of the Netherlands 1566
The Duke of Alva's cruel work 1567–1572
William of Orange in command in the Netherlands . . 1568
Defeat of the Turks at Lepanto 1571
Revolt of the Moors in Spain 1571
The Spanish fury and the ravage of Antwerp 1576
The Dutch Republic is founded 1579
William of Orange is assassinated 1584
Spain gives up the Netherlands 1609
The Moors expelled from Spain 1610

The Religious Revolt in England.

Henry VIII. succeeds to the throne 1509
Henry's divorce 1527–1533
Founds the Church of England 1531
Excommunicated by the Pope 1534
Mary, the Catholic queen 1553
Elizabeth restores the Church of England 1558
Mary, Queen of Scots, and her fate 1587

France and its Religious Wars.

Charles VIII. succeeds 1483
His invasion of Italy 1495
Louis XII. 1498
His wars in Italy 1501
Francis I. succeeds 1575
Defeated and taken prisoner by the Emperor Charles V. 1525
The Duke of Bourbon takes Rome 1527

The frightful ravage of Rome 1527
Massacre of the Waldenses 1545
Henry II. persecutes the Huguenots 1547
Francis II. marries Mary, Queen of Scots 1559
Charles IX. 1560
Massacre of St. Bartholomew 1572
Henry III. 1574
Murder of the Duke of Guise 1588
Henry IV. of Navarre, Protestant King of France. . . 1589
Battle of Ivry 1590
Henry becomes a Catholic 1596
The Edict of Nantes 1598
Henry is assassinated 1610
Louis XIII. 1610
Richelieu and the Huguenots; capture of La Rochelle 1628
Louis XIV. 1643
Revocation of the Edict of Nantes 1685

THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR IN GERMANY.

The Bohemians rebel 1618
Ferdinand of Bohemia elected emperor 1619
Ferdinand makes war on the Protestants . . . 1619–1637
King Christian of Denmark heads the Protestant League. 1625
Wallenstein invades Denmark and defeats Christian . . 1629
Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden becomes the Protestant champion 1630
Count Tilly destroys Magdeburg 1631
Tilly defeated at Leipsic by Gustavus 1631
Gustavus defeats Wallenstein at Lützen 1632
Gustavus slain at Lützen 1632
France takes part in the war 1635–1648
The Peace of Westphalia; religious freedom in Germany 1648

SECTION II.—THE ERA OF POLITICAL DEVELOPMENT

CHAPTER I

ENGLAND FROM JAMES I. TO GEORGE III.

James I. becomes King of England.—When Queen Elizabeth, the great woman monarch of England, died in 1603, there were none left of the Tudor family to follow her on the throne. Mary, Queen of Scots, would have been the next heir to the throne if she had lived, for her grandmother was a sister of Henry VIII., which made her a cousin of Elizabeth. As it was, her son, James VI. of Scotland, became King of England as James I., and in this way the whole island of Great Britain was brought under one king. The new line of sovereigns was called the Stuart line, from the family name of the Scotch kings.



PIKEMAN OF TIME OF JAMES I.

The Divine Right of Kings.—James I. was a weak, obstinate, and conceited man. He had read much and thought himself very learned, so that Sully, the French statesman, called him "the wisest fool in England." One form of his folly was to believe that the king was above all laws. He talked much of the "Divine Right

of Kings," and tried to prove it by raising money from taxes laid by himself. This brought him into dispute with the lawmakers, and Parliament gave the king to understand that it had the sole right of laying taxes, and also other rights which it would not let him interfere with. One good thing he did was to keep the country free from war, so that it gained much in trade and wealth.

How Charles acted the Tyrant.—James died in 1625, and his son took the throne as Charles I. He had as much folly as his father, and was quite as obstinate, and in his effort to establish the "Divine Right of Kings" he succeeded in having himself driven from the throne and his head cut off. This is the story which we have next to tell. When Parliament would not grant Charles money for a useless war with Spain, he began, like his father, to raise money in illegal ways, and the people soon grew very angry. Parliament, seeing that the new king was trying to rob it of its power, and reign over the people like the despotic kings of France and Spain, passed a Petition of Right which Charles was obliged to sign. This forbade him to levy taxes without the consent of Parliament, to imprison any one without trial, or to billet soldiers in private houses.



MUSKETEER OF TIME OF JAMES I.

Charles I. rules without Parliament.—Though Charles signed this petition and made it law, he paid little heed to it. He dissolved Parliament and said he would never call it

together again, and he at once began to break the law by levying taxes and imprisoning any one who displeased him. The next thing he did was to try and make the Scotch people accept the Church of England as their form of religion. By these acts he filled both England and Scotland with rebels. The Scotch people were so furious that an army of them invaded England. The king could not fight them without help from Parliament, and he was forced to call it together. He did this in 1640, eleven years after he had dissolved the former Parliament.

The Acts of the New Parliament.—The new Parliament would not vote any money until it had brought back the old liberties of England. A law was passed saying that there should be a Parliament at least every three years, and that it could not be adjourned without its own consent. Then it had the two great councillors of the king tried for treason and executed. After that it dissolved the unjust courts he had made. The king grew so angry that in 1642 he attempted to arrest five of the leading members of Parliament. This stirred up so great a tumult that soon there was war between the king and the law-makers.

Civil War in England.—For six years, until 1648, civil war raged in England. The king's followers were called Cavaliers. Those of the Parliament were called Roundheads, from their fashion of keeping their hair close cut. They were Puritans or Independents in religion, and their great leader was a Puritan named Oliver Cromwell, the greatest soldier and the ablest man of his time.

The Trial and Execution of the King.—Many battles were fought, the final one being at Naseby in 1645. In this the king's forces were totally defeated and he was forced to flee to Scotland. But the Scotch people hated him and gave

him up to Parliament, and soon he was in the hands of Cromwell and his army. The soldiers had no faith in Charles, who had deceived the country so often, and who quickly showed that he was not to be trusted. So he was brought to trial on a charge of treason, before a part of the Parliament, all those friendly to him being kept out by force; and on January 27, 1649, he was found guilty and condemned to death as a "tyrant, traitor, murderer, and public enemy." Three days afterwards this sentence was carried out, the king's head being cut off in view of a great body of people. Thus the people of England showed that they would not submit to tyranny.



OLIVER CROMWELL.

The Commonwealth of England.—For eleven years, from 1649 to 1660, England ceased to be a monarchy. It was called a Commonwealth. What was left of the House of Commons acted at first as the ruling body, but Cromwell was the real ruler, and in 1653 he was made the legal ruler, with the title of Lord Protector of England.

Cromwell as Lord Protector. — Cromwell was great, both as statesman and soldier. He whipped the Scotch when they marched against him under Charles, the Prince of Wales; he defeated the Spaniards by land and sea; he fought Holland, and forced from it a treaty of peace; he made England honored and feared abroad, and he became

the protector of the Protestants on the Continent. Then, in 1658, he died, having proved himself one of the greatest rulers England had ever known. His son succeeded him, but he was entirely unfit for the position, and in 1660 Prince Charles was invited back, and was proclaimed king, with the title of Charles II



ENTRY OF CHARLES II. INTO LONDON.

Charles II. and his Habits.—The people of England had shown that they would not be ruled over by a tyrant, and their new king did not try to act like his father and grandfather. In fact, he was so fond of vile pleasures that he did not trouble himself much about the government. Under Cromwell and his stern Puritans all public amuse-

ments had been put down and the most innocent sports were forbidden. Under Charles II. the people were wild for pleasure, all kinds of revelry and vice went on, and it looked as if no honor or virtue was left in the land.

Religious Persecution.—There was much persecution for religion's sake, and Quakers and others who did not believe in the Church of England doctrines were treated as criminals. In Scotland the Covenanters were hunted like wild beasts because they wished to worship God in their own way. Under James I. and Charles I. many of the Puritans and Catholics had left England for America so as to escape persecution, and under Charles II. the Quakers did the same. William Penn made a large settlement of them in Pennsylvania.

Plague and Fire in London.—Two great disasters took place while Charles II. was king. In 1665 a terrible plague broke out in England and raged till a hundred thousand people died in London alone, and great numbers in the kingdom. The next year a great fire broke out in London which burned for three days and left two hundred thousand people without a home.

A Catholic King.—Charles died in 1685, and his brother, the Duke of York, succeeded him as James II. He was a rigid Catholic in faith, and a man without good sense enough to let the people alone in their religion. He did all he could to bring back Catholicism. The people bore with him for a time, but three years gave them enough of their new king, and they wished William, Prince of Orange, to come over from Holland and take the throne.

William of Orange invited to England.—William's mother had been Mary Stuart, daughter of Charles I., and he had married Mary, daughter of James II., so both he and

his wife were of the royal blood of England. Some of the British nobles secretly invited William over, and in 1688 he landed with a small army on the coast of England.

William and Mary crowned.—When James learned that his son-in-law had come to drive him from the throne he was wild with fear. He called desperately on the army and the people, making promises to be a good king, but when he



London from the River Early in Seventeenth Century.

found that the army was going over to William he fled in all haste to France, where he lived for the rest of his life on a pension from the French king. His throne was declared vacant, and William and Mary were proclaimed king and queen of England. At the same time a "Bill of Rights" was passed to secure the people from any more acts of tyranny by their kings. This was agreed to by the new monarchs, and thus ended the "Revolution of 1688." After that no more was heard of the "Divine Right of Kings" or of taxation without consent of Parliament.

The War in Ireland.—William III. was weak and sickly, but he was a man of noble character and with the genius of a statesman. He soon had wars on his hands. The deposed King James crossed to Ireland, whose Catholic people flocked to his standard. He besieged Londonderry, but its people would not surrender, though they were forced by hunger to eat rats and mice and chew old shoes and hides. In 1690 James was utterly defeated at the Battle of the Boyne, and fled back to France. William had a war also with Louis XIV. of France, which was ended in 1697. He died in 1702, as a result of a fall from his horse. His wife Mary had died eight years before, and the crown now descended to her sister Anne.

Parliament and the Parties.—"Good Queen Anne" the people called their new queen. She was kind-hearted, but was far better fitted to rule over a household than a kingdom. But Parliament was now the practical ruler of the country, which could get along very well with a weak king or queen. Two great parties had now arisen among the English people, the Whigs and the Tories, and the party that was in power chose the prime minister, who managed the affairs of the nation. There was a great war going on with France, and the Whigs were the war party, while the Tories were the peace party.

The Victories of Marlborough.—The war was called the War of the Spanish Succession. This was a great fight for the throne of Spain, which was claimed by both a French and a German prince. England took the side of Germany. Her armies were commanded by Marl'borough, the greatest general of the age. In five years he won four great victories over France. Then the Tories came into power, Marlborough was called home, and peace was made with France.

The Act of Union.—Another great event of the reign of Queen Anne was the union of England and Scotland. They had been under one monarch since James I. came to the throne, but they were still two nations, with two parliaments. As there was much ill-feeling between them, a Treaty of Union was drawn up and accepted in 1707. This made England and Scotland one nation, under the name of Great Britain. One would think that Britain would have been a better name, without calling a small island "Great," but the English of that time did not think so.

An Heir to the Throne.—Queen Anne died in 1714 and left England with a vacant throne. All her children, and there had been no fewer than seventeen of them, died before her, and the country was in want of a king. The nearest heir to the throne was James, the son of James II., but he was a Catholic, and a law had been passed that no Catholic should rule. So Parliament had to go to the small kingdom of Hanover, in Germany, in search of a king. There reigned George, Elector of Hanover, and grandson of Sophia, a sister of Charles I. So George of Hanover was asked to come and rule over Great Britain as George I.

The Reign of George I.—A queer king for England was George I. He was a little German, fifty-four years old, who could not speak a word of English. He was a man of coarse appearance, low tastes, and little education, a dull, sullen, obstinate man. But he was truthful and industrious and had a strong sense of duty, and, as he cared far more for Hanover than for England, he did not meddle with Parliament, but left it to rule the country much as it pleased. During his reign, James, son of James I., tried to win the throne. He came to Scotland in 1715 and some fighting took place, but his party was soon defeated and he hurried

back to France. He is known as the Old Pretender. There was not much else of importance in the reign of George I. except a great speculative fever called the South Sea Bubble, by which many who hoped to get rich easily were made poor.

George II. and Walpole.—George I. died in 1727, and his son took the throne as George II. He could speak a little English, but was as much of a German and as fond of Hanover as his father. During much of his reign Robert Walpole, the Prime Minister, was the actual ruler of the country. He is said to have managed the House of Commons by bribery, but he was shrewd and skilful and worked for peace and liberty, and the country prospered under his administration of more than twenty years.

The Young Pretender.—There were four wars in the reign of George II. Two of these were wars in Spain and Austria, which cost money but did not benefit the country. In the year 1745 Charles Edward, son of James, the Old Pretender, came to Scotland to fight for the throne, but he met with a fatal defeat at the battle of Cullo'den. He is known in history as the Young Pretender.

The Seven Years' War.—The great war of George's reign was the Seven Years' War with France. This began in America in 1755 between the French and English colonists, but it soon spread to Europe and to India. It ended in America in the capture of Quebec by General Wolfe and the loss by the French of their colonies in America. In India the fight was for the control of that country. Robert Clive defeated the French and Indians at Plassey in 1757, and in this way England became the ruling power in that great and populous country. During these wars William Pitt, known as the "Great Commoner," was prime minister of Great Britain, and had more power than the king.

The Sect of Methodists.—An important event in the reign of George III. was the rise of the religious sect known as Methodists. John Wesley was its great organizer, but associated with him were Charles Wesley, the "Sweet



THE BELLMAN OF LONDON, 1616.

Singer," and George Whitefield (Wit'fēld), one of the most eloquent of preachers. They were mobbed and stoned and exposed to other indignities, but they kept on preaching, and ended by giving to England and America one of their strongest and most earnest religious sects.

George III. and his Ministers.—In 1760 George II. died, and his son, George III., became king. He reigned for sixty years, the longest reign in English history except that of Queen Victoria. He was the first monarch of the House of Brunswick (as the line of the Georges was called) who was born in England and was English in feeling. "I glory in the name of Briton," he said to Parliament. He was a good man in his private life, the best of the Georges, but he was

not a good king. He was dull, ignorant, and obstinate, and would have liked to be a despot if he could. William Pitt retired from the ministry when he became king, and a series of small men, of the Tory party, took his place. They were men whom the king could control, and they helped him to bring England into trouble and loss.

The Loss of the American Colonies.—As the king could not tax Englishmen at his will, he tried to do so in America, and he so incensed the Americans by his attempts to tax them that in ten years he drove them into war. The result of this war was the freedom of the American colonies and the rise of the great republic of the United States. Before the century ended England was involved in another great war, that arising from the French Revolution. An account of these wars will be given in later chapters. As for George III., we need only say further that he became insane in the later years of his life, and from 1810 to 1820 his son ruled as regent.

CHAPTER II

FRANCE FROM RICHELIEU TO THE REVOLUTION

Louis XIII. and Richelieu.—We have told how Henry IV., the Protestant King of Navarre, who became a Catholic King of France, died in 1610 by the dagger of an assassin. His son, Louis XIII., was then only nine years old, so that his mother, Marie de Médicis, had to rule as regent. One good thing she did for the king and for France. There was a young priest named Armand Duplessis de Richelieu, of whom she had so high an opinion that she had him raised to the dignity of a cardinal, and in 1624 put him into the cabinet of the king. From that time on Richelieu was the true ruler of France. Louis was a weak man and Richelieu got complete control over him, and for twenty years the king did nothing and the cardinal did everything.

France's Greatest Statesman.—Richelieu was crafty and unscrupulous, but he was a man of wonderful ability in matters of state. It has been told already how he took La Rochelle and put down the power of the Huguenots, and also how he helped the Swedes in the Thirty Years' War and humbled Austria. He also punished the nobles who opposed him and had a number of them executed. He destroyed their castles and weakened the feudal power, and got them to come to Paris and amuse themselves with the follies of the court. In that way he increased the power of the king and put down that of the nobles. When this great statesman died, in 1642, he left France the leading power in Europe.

Louis XIV. succeeds.—Louis XIII. died soon after Richelieu, and his son, only five years old, inherited the throne as Louis XIV. He was to reign seventy-two years, from 1643 to 1715, and to become the most powerful and famous monarch of the kingdom of France. He also had an able minister, Cardinal Mazarin′, but he soon became the ruler himself, and for many years he kept Europe stirred up by his ambition and his wars of conquest.

The War of the Fronde.—Richelieu's war with Austria kept on during this king's boyhood, and there was also a civil war by a reform party called the Fronde, who tried to drive Mazarin out of office. Mazarin died when Louis was twenty-three years of age, and from that time forward he managed the affairs of the government himself.

The New King rules.—Richelieu had put down the feudal power of the nobles, so that Louis XIV. was able to reign with as absolute power as the old emperors of Rome. "I am the state," he said, and no one dared question a word that came from his lips. He was not a great soldier or a great statesman, like Cæsar or Charlemagne, but he had the good sense to choose the ablest men as his ministers and to let them manage the affairs of war, commerce, and finance. And he was shrewd enough to act as if all the success of his officers was due to his own genius. In that way he became looked on as a great man.

The Wars of Louis XIV.—Louis wished to shine as a mighty conqueror, and so, as we have said, he kept Europe in a turmoil of war. There were four great and destructive wars during his reign, all due to his ambition,—the war of Flanders (1667–1668), the war with Holland (1672–1679), the war of the Palatinate (1688–1697), and the war of the Spanish Succession (1701–1714). These wars were full of

battles and sieges, marches and countermarches, victories and defeats. They went far to ruin both France and the countries in which the fighting took place, and did no one any good. Their story must be told here very briefly.



Archers of the Bodyguard.

The Preparation for War.—To carry on his wars Louis got ready great armies, under able generals, and built strong fortresses for the defence of his borders, and got together a powerful fleet and laid taxes on his people heavy enough to crush them into the earth. But what were the people to Louis XIV. when his own glory was in the scale!

The War in Flanders.—Louis had married Maria Theresa, daughter of Philip IV. of Spain, and he made this an excuse to claim Flanders, which was then held by Spain. He never

wanted more than an excuse. Soon his army was capturing cities in Flanders. But England, Holland, and Sweden joined to stop him and he was forced to give up most of the places he had taken. The rest he fortified and made of them strong fortresses.



Louis XIV.

The Invasion of Holland.—Louis was very angry with Holland for interfering in this war. So he bribed England and Sweden not to interfere, and then sent his great army, under his best generals, to punish that small country for its daring. His soldiers were armed with the bayonet, a weapon of war just come into use, and they swept the Dutch before them until they were close to the great city of Amsterdam. It looked as if the whole country would be taken and added to France.

The Country flooded.—But the Dutch had a great leader, William of Orange, the man who afterwards became King of England. He said that it would be better to drown the country than let the French have it, so the sluices in the great dykes were opened and the waters of the ocean poured in, turning Holland into a lake. The French had to march in all haste away out of the lowland country. William's fleet also fought and beat off the fleets of France and England. In this way Holland was saved from conquest.

A Great Conflict.—The ambition of Louis had now filled all Europe with dread. Spain, Austria, and Prussia joined

William of Orange in an alliance against France, and for four years there was terrible fighting in Holland and elsewhere. Then they all got tired of a war which was making their countries poor and doing nobody any good, and a treaty of peace was made. This treaty gave Louis new provinces and cities, and the French people were so proud of their warlike king that they began to call him the Grand Monarch.

The Pride of Louis.—Louis now thought himself the great man of Europe, and began to seize cities to which he had no claim, and meddle in the affairs of distant lands in which he had no concern. The worst thing he did for France was to persecute the Huguenots and in this way to drive from the country half a million of its best and most industrious workmen.

A Kingly Crime.—That was a great crime, and another as great began in 1688, when the king sent his armies into a peaceful country, near France, called the Palatinate. His generals found they were not able to hold it, so they set to work to destroy it. Over forty cities and villages were left in ruins. Houses were blown up, orchards and villages cut down, and the very ashes of the dead in the cemeteries were cast to the winds.

The Grand Alliance.—This terrible work of a bandit army filled all Europe with horror. William of Orange, who was now King of England, organized a Grand Alliance of the nations of Europe to punish the king who could do such deeds of woe, and after years of war Louis was forced to give up most of his conquests. But he held on to the city of Strasburg, which he had seized without right and which had been made into a strong fortress.

War of the Spanish Succession.—The next war of Louis XIV. began in 1701, and was started with the purpose

of putting a French prince on the throne of Spain. Another great alliance was made against him, and this war went on until 1714. Marlborough, England's great general, and the famous Prince Eugene commanded the allied armies, while the greatest of the French generals had died. So the allies won many brilliant victories, and the French were driven back on all sides. The people of France were suffering from famine and disease, the debt was enormous, and the proud Louis had to beg for peace. The next year he died, after having ruined France by his pride and ambition.

The Splendor of the Court of Louis XIV.—The court of Louis XIV. was magnificent and its display was splendid. Vast buildings, costly libraries, magnificent palaces, great institutions of learning and science added to the glory of the Grand Monarch's reign. Literature flourished in France as never before, the manners of the court were refined and polished, the French language and social customs became the courtly fashion for all Europe, and the king strutted about as a model of royal dignity. Bolingbroke says he was "the best *actor* of majesty that ever filled a throne."

A Reign of Vice and Extravagance.—But this was all empty show to hide a vile court and a ruined nation. The government was a complete despotism, vice ruled the court under a shadow of virtue, society was corrupt under all its display of polite polish, the wars of the reign were great plundering expeditions, and their failure left France in a terrible state. Her industries were ruined. The extravagance of the court and the cost of the wars had brought her into a state of bankruptcy, with a debt variously estimated at from two billion four hundred million to three billion five hundred

million francs—an enormons debt for those times. Thus the seeds of the terrible French Revolution were sown by France's proudest and most famous king.

Louis XV. succeeds.—We cannot say a word in favor of the reign of the next King of France, Louis XV. The reign of Louis XIV. had been one of gilded vice; that of Louis XV. was one of open vice. He was the great-grandson of the Grand Monarch, whose sons and grandsons had died, and he was only five years old when the throne was left to him.

The Mississippi Bubble.—France was buried in debt and had no credit, so an attempt was made to carry on the government with paper money. This was the scheme of John Law, a wild speculator, who got the people to invest their money in fanciful mines in Louisiana. Law's plan was called the Mississippi Bubble; it was in the same year as the South Sea Bubble in England. When it burst thousands of people in France were utterly ruined. They had bought shares at vast prices, and hosts of them lost all their money.

The Reign of Louis XV.—Louis XV. reigned from 1715 to 1774, and things kept getting worse. He had no love of glory, like the last king, but he was fond of base pleasures, and the money of the people was spent freely on the most costly luxuries and wildest extravagances. There were wars, too, which added to the debt. One of them was the war in America, by which France lost the vast country of Canada. Louis XV. died in 1774, the year in which the Revolutionary Congress met in America. As he lay on his death-bed he said, "Après moi le déluge"—"after me the deluge." That deluge came, fifteen years later, in the shape of the French Revolution.

Louis XVI. and his Wife.—Louis XVI. was the next king. He was a kind-hearted, well-meaning young man,

with none of the vile habits of his predecessor. But he was a man of small brain, and utterly unfit to deal with the terrible problems that lay before him. His wife, Marie Antoinette, daughter of the Queen of Austria, was a beautiful



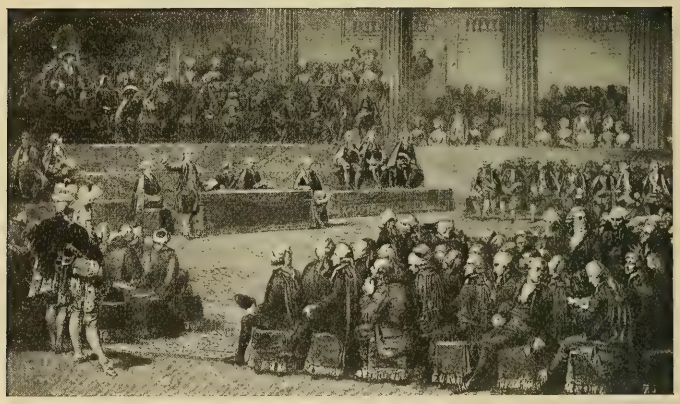
Louis XVI.

and innocent-minded young woman, but was gay and thoughtless, and did many things which made the people hate her. They hated her most for being an Austrian.

A Land laden with Debt.—It was the great debt and the poverty and misery of the people that brought on the Revolution. France helped America in her Revolutionary War, and this led to a war with England that added to the debt. Efforts of all kinds were made to raise money, but not with much success. The nobility and the clergy,

who owned two-thirds of the land, paid no taxes, so that the whole burden of supporting the government and its wars fell on the peasantry and the middle classes.

An Era of Discontent.—This state of affairs filled the country with discontent. Also the people were growing tired of being ruled by a despot, who was above all the laws. The great writers of the day talked much about liberty and the rights of man. Across the English Channel the French saw people ruled by men elected by themselves. In America they saw another nation which had just formed a government of the people. Why should France be deprived of all liberty? It was this, as much as the burden of debt and poverty, that filled the land with indignation.



THE STATES-GENERAL.

The Assembly of the Notables.—Such were the things which brought on the Revolution. In 1787 an Assembly of the Notables—the chief nobles and magistrates—was called to devise some means of raising money, which was then very badly needed. But when there was talk of taxing the

land these men, who owned so much of it, would not listen, so nothing was done by the Assembly.

The States-General is called.—There was nothing left but to call a meeting of the States-General,—the representatives of all the people of the land. While the Parliament of England met every year, the States-General of France had not met for a hundred and seventy-five years. But at last not only the nobles and the clergy, but the representatives of the people, the Third Estate, were to be given a voice in the settlement of affairs. All over the land the elections went on. Every man who looked respectable was allowed to vote; lawyers, doctors, farmers, priests, and authors were elected, and on the 5th of May, 1789, twelve hundred representatives met in the king's palace at Versailles (Ver-sā′yeh). It was the first day of the Revolution.

CHAPTER III

PRUSSIA AND FREDERICK THE GREAT

Germany and the Empire.—In the year 1438 Albert, Duke of Austria, was elected to the head of the Holy Roman Empire. From that time on the emperors were chosen from the House of Austria. This gave that country much power in Germany, and it began to appear as if it would in time lord it over all the other states. We have seen what power the Emperor Ferdinand II. had in the Thirty Years' War. After that war, however, the Holy Roman Empire was little more than a name, Germany being broken up into a multitude of independent states. One of these was to rise into supremacy and become greater than Austria. This was the new kingdom of Prussia.

The Electorate of Brandenburg.—There was an old but small state in the north of Germany called Brandenburg, the ruler of which was one of the seven princes who had the right of electing the emperor. So he was called the Elector of Brandenburg. His family name was Hohenzollern, which is that of the present emperors of Germany.

The Great Elector.—In 1611 another small state called the Duchy of Prussia was united to Brandenburg, and in 1640 an elector named Frederick William became ruler of this united country. He was so able a man that he became known as the Great Elector. He added new territory to Prussia, he gave it a standing army, he developed his dominion in every way, and he made it so important that, in 1701, his son Frederick was given the title of King of

Prussia. It was the Emperor of Austria who gave him this title and thus raised a duchy into a kingdom.

Frederick William I. and his Army of Giants.—Frederick William I., the son of the first Prussian king, was a great oddity of a man. He was violent and brutal in temper, and was full of queer freaks. One of his fancies was for big soldiers. He filled his army with the tallest men he could find in Europe, some of them eight feet high. He was much of a miser with money, but would spend any sum to get a giant for his army. When he died he left his son Frederick plenty of money and a well-drilled army of over eighty thousand men.

The Boyhood of Frederick II.—This son, Frederick II., came to be one of the greatest soldiers of modern times. He won such fame on the battle-field that he is known in history as Frederick the Great. He had a sad boyhood under his stern old father, who kicked and starved him till he ran away, and then threatened to hang him as a deserter. But the boy played the flute, and wrote letters to Voltaire and other great authors, and waited with what patience he could till 1740, when his father died and he became king.

Frederick's Ambition.—Frederick had an ambition to be a great soldier, and he found himself with a good army and plenty of money to begin with; so, like Louis XIV., he looked about for some place where he could use his soldiers to advantage, without troubling himself much about right or wrong.

Frederick seizes Silesia.—In the year that Frederick became king, a woman, Maria Theresa, became Queen of Austria. Half the kings of Europe at once wanted to divide up her country between them, and Frederick began the work by sending an army into Silesia, which was part

of her dominions, and taking possession of it. The queen fled into Hungary, and asked the nobles there to help her, and this they bravely did. But she had France and Bavaria and Saxony as well as Prussia to fight with, so she had to



Statue of Frederick the Great.

let Frederick keep the province he had stolen, in order to save the rest from the other royal robbers.

The War for Silesia.—This war lasted eight years. Then there were eight years of peace, which Frederick spent in drilling and strengthening his army and increasing his treasures. But in 1756 the queen began war again, de-

termined that he should give up the land of which he had robbed her. She had got most of the countries of Europe to promise to help her, including France, Russia, Saxony, Sweden, and Poland. George II. of England was the only king that supported Frederick.

Fighting against Odds.—Then began a great war that went on for seven years. No one dreamed that Prussia could stand up against such terrible odds, but Frederick was one of those men who never know when they are whipped, and he fought them all like a wolf driven to bay.

The Fortune of Frederick the Great.—Frederick was very different from Louis XIV. He led his own men to battle, and shared with them the toils and hardships, and gained the glory of war. He won battles and met with defeats, and in the second year of the war found himself so overwhelmed by his foes that he was nearly ready to kill himself. But he took heart, dashed at them again, won two great battles, and drove the Austrians out of Silesia, which he thus captured a second time.

Three Years of Disaster.—In the fourth year misfortune again followed him, and one army of twenty thousand men was forced to surrender. But he struggled on desperately for three years longer, fighting against a vast force of two hundred thousand men, gathered around him on all sides. His capital was taken and plundered, his land wasted, his army cut to pieces, his money spent, and it looked again as if there was nothing for him but surrender or suicide.

How the War ended.—Just then the Empress Elizabeth of Russia died. Peter III., who succeeded her, was a warm friend and admirer of the great Prussian, and at once withdrew from the league and sent help to Frederick. This caused the other powers to make peace, and Frederick had

now only Austria to deal with. The proud Maria Theresa could not fight so great a soldier alone, and was forced to leave Silesia in Frederick's hands. Peace was made in 1763, and the great Seven Years' War came to an end.

What Prussia gained from the War.—Thus ended one of the world's most famous wars. It is estimated that it led to the death of a million men. Europe paid bitterly for Frederick's seizure of Silesia, but he had proved himself a great soldier and had raised Prussia from a petty kingdom to be one of the five Great Powers of Europe. He spent the rest of his life in combating the ruin left by the war and bringing back prosperity to Prussia. Everything possible was done to revive agriculture and manufactures and commerce, and when Frederick died, in 1786, Prussia was a wealthy and contented kingdom. Its population had grown from two to over six millions, and the two millions of thalers with which his revenue began was increased to seventy-two millions of thalers. So Frederick proved himself great in peace as well as in war.

CHAPTER IV

RUSSIA AND POLAND

The Great Powers of Europe.—In the last chapter mention was made of the five Great Powers of Europe. This referred to the leading powers during the eighteenth century. Four of these were England, France, Austria, and Prussia. Eastward from Prussia—which rose to importance in that century—was Russia, the fifth Great Power, of which we have next to speak. And between eastern and western Europe lay Poland, a large kingdom which had a singular and woful fate. To the north lay Sweden and Norway, the land of the Northmen, one of whose kings, Gustavus Adolphus, was the great hero of the Thirty Years' War. It had another famous king, Charles XII., of whose strange career we shall soon speak.

A Land of Barbarians.—We had good reason for not speaking earlier of Russia, for this country long remained a land of barbarians, with no history of importance till the eighteenth century, when a great king arose who made it a powerful nation. So we shall deal very briefly with its earlier story.

The First Russian Kings.—Russia has been called the "Land of the Slavs," for it was peopled by tribes of the Slavonian or Slavic race. But in 862, when the Northmen were troubling the west by their pirate raids, one of their chiefs named Ruric sailed east and became king of the Slavonians who dwelt on the eastern shores of the Baltic Sea. He was the founder of a long line of Russian kings.

The Mongolian Invasion.—Four hundred years later, when the Mongol hordes, under Genghis-Khan, were overrunning Asia and slaughtering its people by millions, a host of these savage horsemen poured into Russia, where they committed terrible ravages. For more than two centuries these Tartar conquerors held Russia in bondage and made its princes pay tribute to their great Khan. Then Ivan the Great (1462–1505), after a terrible struggle, drove them out and set Russia free.

A Land cut off from the Sea.—The rulers that followed Ivan extended the territory of Russia until it spread widely over the land of the old Slavonic tribes. But the Turks and Tartars shut it off from the Black and the Caspian Seas, the Swedes shut it off from the Baltic Sea, and between it and Germany lay the kingdom of Poland. It was thus an inland country, and its people and its kings alike were no better than barbarians. They had hardly begun to take part in the history of the world. But in 1672 a child was born who was to make Russia a great member of the family of nations.

The Romanoff Dynasty.—The Ruric line of Russian kings died out in 1613, and a new family named Romanoff came to the throne. The present Czars of Russia are descendants of this family. The first of this line was Michael Romanoff. After him came Alexis the Good, whose son was the boy just spoken of. He was to make Russia a powerful nation and win for himself the title of Peter the Great.

A Boyish King.—Peter was only ten years old when his father died. At seventeen he made himself full ruler, and at once began to look about him and see how he could add to the size and strength of his country. At that time he was a tall and powerful youth, rough and half savage in his

manners, like the people he ruled over, and given to many low vices. But he was brimful of energy and alive to all new ideas. He did not care so much for war as he did to make his country powerful, prosperous, and civilized, and this he set about doing.

The Projects of Peter of Russia.—The only seaport of Russia at that time was Archangel, on the White Sea, where the Arctic winter filled the harbor with ice for most of the year. Therefore Russia had no ships and no commerce. It did not even have a word for *fleet* in its language. Peter saw that his country badly needed an opening to the sea, so he sailed down the Don River and attacked the Turkish port of Azov, on the Black Sea. He captured this in 1696, and thus gave Russia its first open gateway to the ocean.

A Remarkable Enterprise.—Peter wished also to drive back the Swedes and win himself another port on the Baltic Sea. But before attempting this he carried out a remarkable enterprise which made him famous in Europe. He wanted to make Russia a naval power, and there was hardly a man in it who had ever seen a ship. So he sent a large number of young nobles to the west to learn the naval art, telling them not to dare come home until they had made themselves good sailors. Then he left Russia in the care of some trusty nobles and followed his young men to the west.

The Ship Carpenter of Zaandam.—In 1697 a tall, rough-mannered young man, plainly dressed, appeared at Zaandam, near Amsterdam in Holland, and hired out as a laborer to a Dutch ship-builder. He worked away like the other hands, boiling his own pot for dinner, mending his own clothes, and taking his wages with the others every Saturday night. Though he had disguised himself as a common laborer, and went under the name of Peter Zimmermann, it

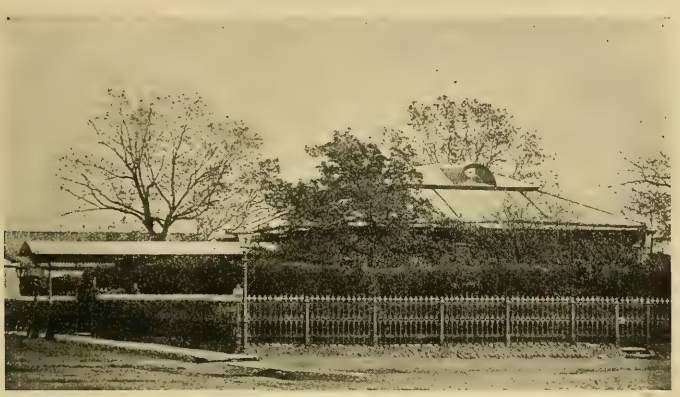
was quickly known that this strange workman was the Czar Peter of Russia. The way he made things fly about helped to show the slow-moving Dutchmen that he was no common workman.

What Peter learned in Holland.—The new apprentice learned much about the ship-building art at Zaandam. Then, to get away from the curious crowds that troubled him, he went to Amsterdam, where he worked for four months on a frigate that was set up and built to please him. He also learned in Holland much about blacksmithing and cobbling, and enough of the art of surgery to bleed and to pull teeth, and got good ideas about many other things that had never been heard of in Russia.

The Czar's Return.—From Holland Peter went to England. Here the king, William III., made him very welcome, let him inspect his navy and dock-yards, and got up a sham sea-fight with which the Czar was immensely pleased. He went to some other countries, but word came to him of a rebellion in Russia, so he hastened home to Moscow, the Russian capital. Here he made short work of putting down the rebel guardsmen, and cut off the heads of twenty of them with his own hands. Peter, you may see, had the savage instincts of a barbarian, in spite of his desire for civilization.

Peter the Great as a Reformer.—Peter came home full of the idea of reform. He would have liked to turn his people into Dutch or Englishmen at once if he could. He made the people of Moscow cut off the skirts of their long robes, and ordered them also to shave off the long beards which it was the fashion to wear. To force them to do this he laid a tax on beards. Tailors were placed at the city gates to cut off the skirts and trim the beards of those who

entered, and the terrible Czar did the same thing for the people of the court who had not obeyed his order. He went after them with a long shears and snipped off their skirts and beards. It was not easy to change the fashions of a whole people, but it came about in time, and the Rus-



House of Peter the Great.

sians began to dress and look like other Europeans. Peter did things of more importance,—he built factories, roads, and canals, started schools, opened mines, established a postal system, issued a new coinage, and made laws based on those of the West.

Russia and Sweden.—One great project he had in his mind was to extend Russia to the Baltic Sea, and thus obtain an outlet to the ocean of the north for the fleet which he wished to build. Sweden held that country, but he was not much afraid of Sweden, whose king had died three years before, leaving his son, a boy of fifteen, to the throne.

The New Swedish King.—It looked as if Sweden would be an easy prey, and Peter made a league with Poland and

Denmark to conquer that country and divide it between them. They did not know the man they had to deal with. Charles XII., the new king, was only twenty in 1700, when this league was formed, and had displayed such follies as a boy that the kingly plotters looked on him as a weak and idle fool. They were soon to learn better.

Charles XII. and his Victories.—Charles was a born soldier, with a remarkable genius for war, and this he quickly showed. He had the ambition to make himself a second Alexander the Great, and with his small but well-trained army he began by a fierce attack on the Danes. They were so thoroughly beaten that in two weeks the Danish king had to beg for peace. Then he defeated the Polish army at Riga, and, with a small force of eight thousand men, he attacked and utterly defeated a Russian army of eighty thousand, taking most of them prisoners. In less than a year the "Madman of the North," as men called Charles, had effectually broken up the league of his enemies and defeated all its armies.

Charles conquers Poland.—During the next four years Charles was occupied in Poland, which he thoroughly subdued and forced its king to surrender his crown to a man chosen by his conqueror. Europe looked on in amazement at the wonderful deeds of this remarkable soldier who had been called the "Madman of the North."

Peter builds a New Capital.—While Charles was busy in Poland, the Czar Peter had not been idle. He took the opportunity to make himself master of the Swedish territory on the Baltic, and on a marshy island of the River Neva he laid the foundations of the great city of St. Petersburg, which was to become the new capital of his realm. Thus, while his allies had been bitterly chastised, Peter had gained what

he set out to win, a port on the Baltic and an opening to the great ocean of the west.

The Ambition of Charles XII.—And now pride and ambition ruined Charles XII., as they have ruined many before and since. So wonderful had been his success in war that he thought he could conquer the world, and when Peter offered him terms of peace he sent back the haughty answer that he would negotiate only at Moscow. Peter, when he heard this, coolly said, "My brother Charles affects to play the part of Alexander, but I hope he will not find in me a Darius."

The Pultowa Conflict.—Napoleon, in later years, marched to Moscow, only to capture a city in flames. Charles had even less success. He found that the Russians had destroyed the roads and turned the country into a desert, and he was forced to turn to the south, with his army of forty thousand men. Here, in 1709, he besieged the city of Pultowa, in which was one of the principal military magazines of Russia. Peter soon marched south with a large army, and Charles, in his haste to meet him, left his cannon behind. The result was that, in two hours, his army was cut to pieces by the Russian artillery. Charles fled across the borders of Turkey with only three hundred followers.

The Last of Charles XII.—A few words will tell the rest of the career of the Swedish conqueror. After spending five years in Turkey, he made his way back to Sweden, and there, four years later, he was killed by a cannon-ball while besieging a town in Norway. He was then only thirty-six years old. His career was an instance of a great soldier ruined by ambition.

What Peter did for Russia.—Peter lived seven years longer, dying in 1725. He well deserved the title of Great,

for he had found Russia a land of barbarians and had lifted it to a high place among the civilized nations; had found it without a ship and with a frozen seaport, and had given it ports on the Black and Baltic Seas and a strong fleet; had given it commerce, manufactures, schools, hospitals, roads, canals, and the printing-press; had reorganized its army and built a new capital, and had changed the manners and customs of the Russians from those of Asia to those of Europe.

Catherine the Great and her Conquests.—Among Peter's successors the most famous was a woman, Catherine II., or Catherine the Great, who was, as the historian McCarthy says, "the greatest woman probably who ever sat on a throne, Elizabeth of England not even excepted." It was her policy, as it had been that of Peter, to extend the limits of Russia, and this she did by capturing the Crimea from the Turks, thus putting an end to the last trace of the old Tartar rule and giving Russia control of the Black Sea. She also gave Russia a wide territory on the west, at the expense of Poland. This was by a high-handed act of robbery, known as the "Partition of Poland," of which we must next speak.

THE FATE OF POLAND.

The Story of Poland.—The history of Poland is a long and interesting one, but we must deal with it very briefly here. The Polish nation began very long ago as a country of tribes with their chiefs, all of whom in 750 were brought under a ruler called a duke. In the year 999 Duke Boleslas, a soldier of genius, was given the title of king. Some centuries later Poland had become a strong and warlike nation, upon which Europe depended to keep back the Turks. In 1674 its king, John Sobieski, marched to Vienna, which was

besieged by a great army of Turks, and defeated them so completely that they never attempted to invade Central Europe again. At that time Poland was a large kingdom, extending from the Baltic Sea to the borders of Turkey and occupying a wide territory between Russia and Germany. To-day you would look for it in vain on the map of Europe, for it has utterly disappeared. Let us see how this came about.

Feudalism in Poland.—Charles XII. in his invasion did much to destroy Poland as a great power. But what served most to ruin it was its false system of government. The feudal system continued in Poland long after the rest of Europe had got rid of it. The king had very little power, for the Diet, or assembly of feudal lords, made the laws and helped to govern the country, but they cared more for their own petty aims and ambitions than they did for the good of the people. Thus the land was full of disunion and hostility, with a king who was often powerless to act, while the other nations around were growing centralized and strong.

How Poland was treated.—Catherine of Russia, Frederick the Great of Prussia, and Maria Theresa of Austria saw how weak Poland had become, and proposed to divide it up between them. No other country interfered, the patriotic Poles lacked an able leader and were helpless against the armies of the imperial robbers, and in 1772 a large section of the old country was divided up between them, Russia getting the largest share.

The Abolition of Poland.—This was done so easily that the robbers became eager for more spoil, and in 1793 Russia and Prussia found an excuse for sending their armies again into the land. The Polish patriots, under Kosciusko and others, fought bravely for their country, but they were soon put down, and Russia and Prussia once more took large

shares of their territory. Two years later the Poles rose in insurrection under their great patriot chief Kosciusko. This rising was put down in blood by the armies of Russia, Prussia, and Austria, and all that remained of the old and great kingdom of Poland was divided between them. Poland was swept off the map of Europe. Many insurrections followed in the nineteenth century, but they did no good, and every trace of the once powerful kingdom of Poland has ceased to exist.

CHAPTER V

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

The Last Act of the Eighteenth Century.—We have now laid before you the outlines of the history of Europe till near the close of the eighteenth century. But before that century ended one of the most startling and momentous events in the history of the world took place, that terrible overthrow of the old order of things in France known as the French Revolution. In Chapter II. of this section we related the events that led up to this mighty outbreak of revengeful passion. We have now to tell what followed the calling out of the States-General in 1789.

The Temper of France.—This was by no means the first time the States-General had been summoned, but one hundred and seventy-five years had passed since its last session, and in that time the temper of France had greatly changed. Like the Parliament which Charles I. of England called in 1640, this States-General had many questions to ask before it would be ready to grant money to the king. For many years the hard-won money of the French people had been wasted in useless wars and courtly corruption and frivolity, and the representatives of the people had now come together to make a stern demand for reform.

The Demand of the Third Estate.—In former meetings the nobles, the clergy, and the commons had each cast a single vote, so that the privileged classes always held the majority. Now the commons, or the Third Estate, as the French called it, had as many members as the other two

bodies together, and they demanded that every member should have a vote. They also demanded that all the members should sit together; not in two bodies as in former cases. This was bitterly opposed by the nobles and clergy, and after weeks of hot debate the Third Estate took a decisive step. They named themselves the National Assembly, and invited the nobles and clergy to join them. If they refused to do so, the Assembly would act by itself.

The Victory of the Commons.—The king had called a lion to his counsels. He forbade the commons to meet, but they came together and took a solemn oath not to part till they had given France a constitution. Then the king gave way, and the nobles and clergy, much against their will, were obliged to join the commons in their hall. The first great victory of the people had been won.

A Carnival of Legislation.—And now a carnival of radical legislation arose that stirred all France to its depths. The Assembly began to throw overboard from the ship of state all its old cargo of feudal claims and oppressions. Laws were passed doing away with all special rights and privileges, making taxes equal on all, establishing freedom of the press and political and religious liberty, with other radical changes.

The Excitement of Paris.—While the Assembly was thus making France a free country, Paris was wild with excitement. Every new act of the Assembly filled the people with wild enthusiasm. There were clubs, meetings, violent orations. Mirabeau, the great popular orator of the Assembly, had his echoes in halls and streets. The whole great city was like a mine, ready to explode at a spark.

The Destruction of the Bastile.—The spark came when it was reported that the guns of the Bastile (bas-teel′) were to be turned on the people. The Bastile was the famous

state's prison into which thousands of prisoners had been sent on the mere word of the king, and which was hated as the great stronghold of oppression. On hearing this report the people rose in arms and marched upon it. A violent siege began, in four hours the old fortress was taken, its walls were soon razed to the ground, and the people danced wildly on the spot where it had stood. This first great act of the Revolution took place July 14, 1789.

The Rapid Course of Events.—From that time on events moved with increasing rapidity. A savage mob marched to Versailles and forced the king and his family to come to Paris. Only Lafayette saved them from being murdered. This famous Frenchman, who had served in America under Washington, was put at the head of the National Guard, but its soldiers were in full sympathy with the people and would obey only the National Assembly, which ruled supreme. The nobility, fearing that murder would follow the violence that prevailed, began to leave France in multitudes, and for two years the tide of emigration went steadily on.

The Flight of the King.—A plot was formed for the royal family to follow the fleeing nobles. On the night of June 20, 1791, the king and his family left Paris in disguise, and drove hastily away as far as Varennes (Va-ren′). Here Louis was recognized, and the party was arrested and taken back to Paris. It was the last chance for life and liberty. The Assembly now took all power from the king, and his life hung in the balance.

The First French Constitution.—While these exciting events were going on, the National Assembly was hard at work forming a constitution for France. For centuries its government had been a despotism; now it was to be made a constitutional monarchy. Their work was completed in

September, 1791. The Assembly, which had been in session more than three years, now dissolved, and was succeeded on October 1 by a new body called the Legislative Assembly.

The Factions of the Assembly.—On went events, growing daily more violent and threatening. There were three factions in the Assembly, the Monarchists, the Moderate Republicans, and the Red Republicans, whose cry was, "No king," and whose leaders were those men of terror, Robespierre (Rob'es-peer), Dan'ton, and Marat (Mä-rä'). They were chiefs in the two great revolutionary clubs, the Jacobins and the Cordeliers, in which the work of the Assembly was secretly laid out. In Paris a criminal court was formed, which condemned to death all those who were thought to be hostile to the Revolution, numbers of whom were put to death without mercy.

War begun against France.—The nations of Europe had not looked quietly on this terrible outbreak in France. The noble emigrants who poured across the borders formed themselves into an army under the Prince de Condé, their motto being "Conquer or die!" Later on Austria and Prussia declared war against France and sent their armies to the rescue of the helpless king. In the spring of 1792 their forces, more than one hundred thousand strong, crossed the frontier and invaded France. It was the first step in a great war which was not to reach its end for over twenty years.

The March on Paris and the Massacre of the King's Guards.—Victories were gained and the army of invasion marched on Paris, its commander threatening to destroy that city if any harm were done to the king. When the Parisians heard of this they were wild with rage. A fierce

mob gathered, attacked the palace of the Tuileries (Tweelre′), cut to pieces the Swiss guards of the king, and forced Louis XVI. and his family to seek safety with the Assembly. That was their last of liberty. On August 14 the Assem-



THE REVOLUTIONARY MOB OF PARIS.

bly sent them to the old Temple prison, which they were to leave only for trial and death.

The September Massacre.—With this act of violence and blood the gates of death seemed opened. Scenes of violence and massacre went on with race-horse speed. The most terrible act of all came on September 2, 1792, when news of a Prussian victory reached Paris, driving the populace to terror and fury. The frightful resolution was passed by the Assembly to destroy the host of royalists confined in the prisons. A hundred or more assassins were sent to do the work of death, and for three days a horrible butchery went on, the prisoners being cut down in such multitudes that from six thousand to fourteen thousand are said to have been killed. It was the most dreadful crime of all the Revolution.

France a Republic.—On September 21, 1792, the Legislative Assembly dissolved and was reorganized as the National Convention. It at once began its work of legislation by abolishing the monarchy of France and proclaiming that country a republic. This was on September 22, which was made the beginning of a new era, the first day of the YEAR 1 of the reign of liberty.

The Trial and Death of the King.—The armies of France now began to win victories and stopped the triumphant march of the hostile armies. This gave courage to the Convention, and the king was taken from the Temple prison and put on trial for his life, charged with conspiring against the liberties of France and other crimes. There was but one end to such a trial before such a tribunal. Louis XVI. was condemned to death, and on the 21st of January, 1793, the knife of the guillotine put an end to his life. The guillotine was a new instrument of death used in the Revolution, consisting of a frame-work with an opening to confine the neck of the victim and a heavy knife which fell and cut off his head. Its victims during the Revolution were numbered by thousands.

The League against France.—The news of the king's death roused all the countries of Europe against France. No less than ten nations leagued against that one country, and from England to Russia more than a quarter of a million of men marched upon it. To add to its troubles a rebellion broke out at home, for the people of the Vendée, a land of royalists in the west, rose against the revolutionists.

The Reign of Terror.—This vast threat from outside only added to the mad violence within. The terrible Reign of Terror now began. Throughout the country patriots flocked to the ranks, an army of three hundred thousand

men was raised, and the invaders of France were met by valiant patriots. In the convention there were now two parties, the Girondists or Moderates, and the Mountain or Extremists. In the fierce struggle between these factions the Mountain—supported by the lowest element of Paris—succeeded, and the Girondists were seized and sent to the guillotine. The Extremists were now in control, with Robespierre, Marat, and Danton at their head.

The Work of the Guillotine.—We shall not tell in detail the horrors that followed. Every day hundreds of victims were sent to the guillotine. Their places in the prisons were quickly filled by hundreds of others, arrested on the slightest charges. The trials were mere farces. To be brought before the terrible tribunal meant to be condemned to death. Few of any importance escaped the sweeping drag-net of the Revolution. The carnival of death spread through all France, and it is said that the total number guillotined was more than eighteen thousand.



MARAT.

The Death of the Queen, Marat, and Danton.—Among those sent to the fatal knife was Marie Antoinette, the unhappy queen, who was condemned to death in October, 1793. Before that the despicable Marat had fallen, stabbed to the heart by a devoted Norman maiden named Charlotte Corday, the Joan of Arc of the Revolution. Her work was in vain, and served only to make the Reign of Terror worse.

Robespierre rose to the supreme power in the party of violence and sent his comrade Danton to the guillotine. This was in the spring of 1794, and for several months, under the orders of this monster of crime, the guillotine was kept busier than ever. Meanwhile, the revolutionists, in their madness, had abolished Christianity and founded what they called the Reign of Reason. Sunday was abrogated, a week of ten days was established, and other wild acts were done in the unbridled Convention.



Death of Robespierre.

The Fall of Robespierre.—The Reign of Terror reached its end on July 27, 1794. On that day many members of the Convention, terrified by the numbers of Robespierre's victims, and not knowing how soon their own turn would come, rose against him, defied his power, and arrested him

and a number of his chief supporters. He tried to kill himself, but failed, and the next day he and his fellows were dragged in a rude cart to the death-dealing knife, where they suffered the fate to which they had condemned thousands of innocent French citizens.

A Reaction sets in.—The frightful nightmare under which France had lain for years was at an end. A reaction set in, the prisons were opened and their trembling immates set free, the infamous club of the Jacobins was closed, France breathed again, and the murderous rabble which had so long ruled was driven back to its dens.

It rose again on October 5, 1795, when the Convention passed some measures which offended the extreme revolutionists. A host of the lowest element of Paris marched on the Tuileries, where the Convention was in session; but they found it surrounded by troops, commanded by a young Corsican officer named Napoleon Bonaparte. He met the mob with a storm of cannon-balls which stretched hundreds of them dead and dying on the ground. The others fled, and from that day on the rule of the mob in France was at an end.

CHAPTER VI

THE CAREER OF NAPOLEON BONAPARTE

The Era of Liberty.—If you consider fully what you have just read you will see that a new era had dawned in the history of the world, a great and promising era. In the past chapters we have told of the era of religious wars, when the people of Europe fought fiercely for their faith; and of the era of wars of ambition, when the kings of Europe fought savagely for glory and conquest. We have now to tell of the era of wars of liberty, in which the people fought bravely against the kings for the overthrow of despotism and for the great boon of freedom.

Struggles for Freedom.—Two great events in this grand struggle have been mentioned. The first was that in which the people of England rose against the tyranny of Charles I. and drove him from the throne. The second was that in which the people of America rose against the oppression of George III. and won their independence. A third was that which we have just described, the mighty uprising of the French people against the evils of their government and the founding of a republic in place of the old despotism. This led to a wonderful series of events, of which we have next to tell. From the people came a remarkable man, under whose great leadership France became the master of Europe. His name was Napoleon Bonaparte.

Napoleon at Toulon.—This great soldier, an humble native of the little island of Cor'sica, first became known in 1793, when he took part in the siege of Toulon', a seaport

city in the south of France held by the royalists, who were aided by a fleet of English and Spanish ships of war. The army that besieged this place was wasting its time and doing nothing, when Napoleon, the young Corsican officer men-



Birthplace of Napoleon.

tioned, was put in charge of the artillery. This he handled so ably that the town was soon taken and the ships were put to flight.

The Defence of the Convention.—The next important deed of Napoleon we have already told. It came on that famous day in 1795 when a mighty mob of the lowest people of Paris marched on the hall of the Convention. If they had succeeded, the members might have been massacred and the Reign of Terror brought back. But Napoleon stood there with his cannon, loaded not with blank cartridges but with solid balls, and when the time came he

did not hesitate to sweep the streets with cannon-shot and put the horde of revolutionists to flight.

The Task of the Directors.—What brought the mob against the Convention was a new constitution which it had made, and which put the rule of the country into the hands of five men called Directors. These Directors soon had work to do. The French patriots had driven back the armies of Europe, and even conquered the country of the Netherlands and added it to France. But new armies were coming and a new struggle was at hand. France was threatened with destruction, and its people needed to fight like lions if they would save their country.

The Army of Italy.—The Austrians held the north of Italy with a strong army. Against them was matched an ill-clad, half-fed army of Frenchmen, who had lost all spirit through continued ill-success. In seeking to find a new commander for this army the Directors settled on the little Corsican who had defeated the Paris mob. He had a strong friend among the Directors, who spoke in his behalf, and he was sent to take command in Italy. It was now 1796. He was twenty-six years old. Before another year should pass this little-known young officer was to make himself the most famous man in Europe.

Napoleon's First Campaign.—Taking command of his little army of thirty-six thousand unpaid and half-starved men, he led them against the sixty thousand well-equipped Austrians, whom he fought with such wonderful skill that he defeated them at every point and drove them out of Italy. The next year he invaded Austria, where the emperor was soon glad enough to ask for peace. Napoleon made him give up all his possessions in Italy except Venice. Then the conqueror came back to France with the laurels and spoils

of victory, and the people hailed him as they would have hailed a Cæsar or an Alexander. The young Corsican had proved himself the greatest soldier of the age.



NAPOLEON ON THE BRIDGE OF ARCOLE.

The Egyptian Campaign.—It would take a volume to tell the story of Napoleon's career, but we must deal with it in a chapter. France had now made peace with all her enemies in Europe except England, so Napoleon proposed to lead an army to Egypt and perhaps to India, and fight against England by destroying its commerce and power in the East. This he did. He went to Egypt, and fought there and in Syria, defeating the Turks in every battle. But his fleet was destroyed by a British fleet under Lord Nelson, and when he laid siege to the city of Acre the British helped the Turks to drive him off. This was equal to a defeat in the field. Meanwhile, affairs were going very badly in France, and in August, 1799, Napoleon left his army in Egypt under an able general and returned to France.

Napoleon made First Consul.—Things had gone badly while Napoleon was away. Three nations were now at war with France,—England, Russia, and Austria. All that had been won in Italy was taken back by the Austrians. Money was badly needed, the government was in a helpless state, and the people were furious with the Directors. Napoleon at once took the law into his own hands. As Cromwell had done before him, he led soldiers into the legislative hall and drove out the members at the point of the bayonet. Then a new constitution was adopted, with three Consuls to govern the state. Napoleon was appointed First Consul. The other two were mere figure-heads, and the little Corsican officer had become king in everything except the name.

Marengo and Hohenlinden.—France was in danger from without as well as from within, and the First Consul had great work to do. He lost no time. Like Hannibal of old, he led an army over the frozen summits of the Alps, descended like a mountain torrent on the Austrians in Italy, and won at Marengo one of the most brilliant of his victories (1800). In the same year General Moreau won another great victory at Hohenlinden in Austria, and the emperor was again glad to make peace. This time he gave up Belgium to France.

The Position of England.—England was now the only country in arms against France. But it was a powerful one, for its ships ruled the sea and Napoleon could not send an army against it. So now he, in his turn, was glad enough to make peace, and a treaty was signed in March, 1802.

First Consul for Life and Emperor.—Napoleon was now one of the great rulers of Europe. The French worshipped him almost as a deity. Not since the days of Charlemagne had the world seen so brilliant a soldier. He

could have whatever he asked for. In August, 1802, he was made First Consul for life, and in 1804 he laid plans to be made Emperor. A vote of the people was taken and nearly the whole nation voted in his favor. He was crowned by the Pope on the 2d of December, 1804. Wonderful had been his progress since that day, nine years before, when he, a young unknown, had dispersed the mob of Paris with cannon-balls.

A Strong Coalition against France.—The next year Napoleon was crowned King of Italy at Milan, with the famous iron crown of the Lombards. But the short peace was at an end. England was in arms again. And it had induced Austria and Russia to declare war against France. The new emperor and king had to meet one of the most formidable coalitions of his life.

Ulm and Austerlitz.—It was not Napoleon's method to waste time. He began with vast preparations for invading England. But the Austrian and Russian armies were on the march, and he suddenly broke up his camp on the coast, swept across France with the speed of an avalanche at the head of one hundred and sixty thousand men, and in October, 1805, captured General Mack at Ulm, with thirty thousand men. Then on to Vienna he marched, took possession of the capital of Austria, and on December 2 met the combined armies of Austria and Russia at Aus'terlitz and won the most famous victory of his life. The next day the Emperor of Austria came to his tent to beg for peace. Napoleon granted it, but he forced him to yield to France twenty thousand square miles of territory.

Nelson at Trafalgar.—While Napoleon was thus victorious on land, France met with a great disaster at sea. Lord Nelson, the famous English admiral who had destroyed

Napoleon's fleet in Egypt, met the French and Spanish fleets off Cape Trafal'gar and won a crushing victory. Nelson was killed in the battle, but he had gained for England the empire of the sea. Napoleon never again thought of invading England.

Napoleon as King-Maker.—Napoleon was now not only Emperor of France and King of Italy, but was almost the ruler of Germany. He made kings out of electors, and broke up the old state of affairs, putting an end to what little was left of the Holy Roman Empire, formed a thousand years before. Francis II. had to give up the title of Emperor of Germany and content himself with that of Francis I., Emperor of Austria, and the smaller states were formed into a "Confederation of the Rhine," with Napoleon as their "Protector." At the same time he made his brother Joseph King of Naples and his brother Louis King of Holland.

War with Prussia.—So far Prussia had kept out of the war, but Napoleon treated its king, Frederick William III., with such rude insults, that in 1806 he declared war against France, and raised an army of one hundred and fifty thousand men. Against these Napoleon sent his veteran forces, won two great battles in one day, and crushed the power which Frederick the Great had built up.

Eylau and Friedland.—The Russians were still in arms, and what was left of the Prussians joined them. In 1807 Napoleon met them on the frozen plains of Poland, and in February fought them at Eylau (I'law) in the midst of a blinding snowstorm. Neither side won a victory here, but in June they met again at Fried'land, and the Russians were defeated with a loss of sixty thousand men. In July peace was made with Russia and Prussia, and the latter country had to give up great part of its territory.


EUROPE, 1810
Time of
NAPOLEON
and his Campaigns
Scale of Miles
0 100 200 300 400
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
BLACK SEA
ENGLAND
IRELAND
SCOTLAND
WALES
NORWAY
SWEDEN
FINLAND
RUSSIA
PRUSSIA
HOLLAND
BELGIUM
FRANCE
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
BOHEMIA
Moravia
GALICIA
GRAND DUCHY OF WARSAW
CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE
SWITZERLAND
ITALY
TURKEY
GREECE
WALLACHIA
MOLDAVIA
SERVIA
BOSNIA
CORSICA
SARDINIA
SICILY
AFRICA
TURKEY IN ASIA
Christiana
Stockholm
St. Petersburg
Nijni Novgorod
Moscow
Riga
Kursk
Kiev
Dnieper R.
Don R.
Volga R.
Glasgow
Edinburg
Limerick
Dublin
York
Amsterdam
Antwerp
Plymouth
London
Boulogne
Brussels
Hamburg
Berlin
Dresden
Copenhagen
Brest
Tours
Paris
Metz
Frankfort
Berg
Bay of Biscay
C. Finisterre
Oporto
Lisbon
Madrid
Barcelona
Bordeaux
Pyrenees Mts.
Rhone R.
Marseilles
Genoa
Milan
Florence
Rome
Naples
Cagliera
Cadiz
Str. of Gibraltar
Gibraltar
Ceuta
Malta
Catania
Tarento
Aeolian Islands
Vienna
Prague
Lemberg
Odessa
Crimea
Caucasus Mts.
Danube R.
Pruth R.
Jassy
Bucharest
Silistria
Constantinople
Dardanelles
Salonika
Athens
Candia
Greenwich 30
Longitude 10 East from 20
C.S.H. & CO. N.Y.

New King-Making.—The king-maker now went to work again. His brother Jerome was made King of Westphalia, a country formed of part of the territory taken from Prussia. His brother Joseph was removed from Naples and made



NAPOLEON MEETING THE QUEEN OF PRUSSIA.

King of Spain, and his brother-in-law Murat, his most famous cavalry leader, was made King of Naples. He also tried to break up the commerce of England by closing all the ports of Europe against British ships.

Wellington in Spain.—England had so far helped Europe with its money and its ships, but not with its soldiers. It now sent an army to Portugal, under Lord Wellington, to try and drive the French out of Spain. The war that followed in this quarter lasted nearly five years, and Wellington won many important victories over the French.

A New War with Austria.—Meanwhile, Napoleon was kept busy elsewhere. In 1809 Austria was in arms again, with half a million of men in the field. Napoleon, who was fighting in Spain, marched in all haste to Austria when he heard this news, and fought two battles near Vienna without success. But at the great battle of Wagram (July 5, 1809) the Austrians met with a crushing defeat, and were forced to give up another large section of territory to obtain peace.

Napoleon and his Wives.—One result of this victory was to give Napoleon a new wife. Josephine, who had married him when he was a poor young officer, was divorced because she had no children, for Napoleon wanted a son to succeed him. He forced the Emperor Francis of Austria to give him his daughter Maria Louisa for a wife.

Napoleon's Vast Power.—Napoleon was now at the summit of his power. He and his brothers reigned over most of western Europe. Switzerland and much of Germany acknowledged him as Protector. Prussia and Austria were prostrate at his feet, and he was united in marriage to the Austrian royal house. Russia was at peace with him, and he seemed practically the lord of Europe, England alone defying him. But when at the top one is often nearest a fall. This Napoleon was soon to learn. His ambition was paving the way to his ruin.

The Invasion of Russia.—The trouble came with Russia, which refused to be bound by Napoleon's continental system of commerce, and opened its ports to the merchant ships of England. Finding that the Czar would not obey his orders, and chose to rule his own land in his own way, Napoleon determined to punish him as he had done Prussia and Austria. He gathered an immense force, five hundred thousand strong, made up of troops from all central and

western Europe, and in June, 1812, crossed the River Nie'man and trod on the soil of Russia, directing his march towards Moscow, the old capital of the realm.

The March to Moscow.—The Russians retreated before him, laying waste the land as they went. They fought only one battle, at Borodi'no, which Napoleon won, but at great loss to his own army. Then the French marched to Moscow and entered it in joy and triumph. They fancied that their work was done and Russia won.

The Burning of Moscow.—But that night fires began to appear on every side, and soon the city was wrapped in flames. The Russians, unable to defend their fine old capital, had set it on fire, and in four days most of it was a heap of ashes and the splendid winter quarters on which Napoleon had counted lay in ruins around him.

Nothing left but Retreat.—The victor waited in the desolation of Moscow for a month, hoping that the Czar would ask for peace. But not a word came from St. Petersburg, the terrible Russian winter was coming on, the Russian armies were threatening his depots of supplies, and nothing was left but retreat. On the 19th of October the sadly disappointed conqueror began his backward march.

The Fate of the Grand Army.—Never had there been a more dreadful march. The winter came on early and fierce, and thousands of the great army died of cold. Thousands more died of famine and in battle, for the Russians faced and fought them at every point. Thousands more were taken prisoners. When the frozen Beresi'na River was crossed, out of the whole "Grand Army" only twenty thousand men were left. Napoleon now hurried at all speed to Paris, to prepare for the mighty struggle which he plainly saw before him. He knew well that the Austrians and

Prussians, whom he had forced to aid him, would turn on him as foes as soon as his power sank.



THE RETREAT FROM MOSCOW.

The Last Campaign.—By the beginning of 1813 he had another great army in the field, three hundred and fifty thousand strong. At Lützen, in Saxony, the scene of the famous victory of Gustavus Adolphus, he defeated his foes and captured Dresden. But he was soon forced to retreat to Leip'sic, where a terrible battle was fought, lasting three days. The allies were in overwhelming force and Napoleon fought in vain; he was obliged to retreat. This retreat did not end till the allies had entered France and captured Paris. Thus ended the mighty conflict. Napoleon was forced to give up his throne. On the 4th of April, 1814, he signed the paper which took from him the Empire of France, and on the 20th he set out for the little island of Elba, which was left to him as a puny kingdom.

The Return of the Bourbons.—On May 3, 1814, the Bourbon kings came back, the brother of Louis XVI. taking

the throne with the title of Louis XVIII. The little boy, son of Louis XVI., who had died in prison during the Reign of Terror, was called Louis XVII.

Napoleon back from Elba.—The allies made a sad mistake in leaving Napoleon so near to France. Ten months later he escaped from Elba and landed in France. As he moved towards Paris the troops joined him on all sides and in a few days Louis XVIII. was in flight and Napoleon was again on the throne.

The End comes at Waterloo.—But he was like a wounded lion fighting for life. On every side his enemies gathered, and on the 18th of June, 1815, he met his fate at Waterloo, in Belgium, where an army of British and Germans under Lord Wellington met and utterly defeated his hastily collected forces.

Napoleon sent to St. Helena.—The end had come. Napoleon fled to Paris. But all hope was at an end, and he proceeded to the coast, where he surrendered to the captain of a British man-of-war. No mistake was made this time. He was sent to the far-off island of St. Helena, in the South Atlantic, and there the mighty soldier and emperor died in captivity on the 5th of May, 1821.

SUMMARY OF HISTORY, 1600 TO 1800.

England From James I. To George III.

James I., King of Scotland, succeeds Elizabeth	1603
All Great Britian under one king	1603
Charles I.	1625
The king's quarrel with Parliament; rules without Parliament	1629–1640
Civil war in England	1642–1648
Execution of the king	1649
Cromwell and the commonwealth	1649–1660

Cromwell, Lord Protector 1653
Charles II. proclaimed king 1660
The Great Plague and Great Fire in England . . 1665, 1666
James II. ; a Catholic king 1685
William of Orange invited to take the throne ; James expelled 1688
William III. succeeds 1688
The Bill of Rights passed 1688
James defeated in Ireland 1690
Anne succeeds 1702
Marlborough wins victories from France 1704–1709
The union of England and Scotland 1707
George I. (Elector of Hanover) succeeds 1714
George II. (Walpole as Prime Minister) 1727
Wesley founds the sect of Methodists 1739
The Young Pretender 1745
The Seven Years' War with France 1755–1762
George III. 1760
Revolt of the American colonies 1775

France From Richelieu to the Revolution.

Richelieu made Prime Minister by Louis XIII. 1624
He puts down the nobles and the Huguenots ; humbles Austria in the Thirty Years' War 1624–1648
Louis XIV. 1643
Mazarin Prime Minister 1643–1661
War of the Fronde 1648–1654
Louis rules without a minister 1661
The war in Flanders 1667–1668
The invasion of Holland 1672–1679
The expulsion of the Huguenots 1685
Invasion of the Palatinate 1688–1697
The war of the Spanish Succession 1701–1714
Victories of Marlborough and Prince Eugene . . 1704–1709
Louis XV. 1715
The Mississippi Bubble 1716–1720
The war in America and loss of Canada 1755–1762

Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette 1774
The States-General called in session 1789

PRUSSIA.

Frederick William, the Great Elector 1640
Frederick William I. (first Prussian king) and his army of giants 1701
Frederick the Great 1740
Frederick seizes Silesia 1740
The coalition against Frederick 1756
The Seven Years' War in Prussia 1756–1763
Frederick triumphs 1763
Prussia becomes powerful under Frederick . . . 1763–1786

RUSSIA.

Ruric, the first Russian king 862
The Mongolian invasion 1224
Russia tributary to the Mongol Khans 1224–1480
Ivan the Great 1462–1505
Expulsion of the Mongols 1480
The Romanoff dynasty begins 1613
Peter the Great 1682
Takes Azov from Turkey 1696
Works as a ship-carpenter in Holland 1697
His ideas of reform ; the tax on beards and skirts . . . 1699
The war with Charles XII. of Sweden 1700
Charles defeats the Russians at Riga 1700
Charles subdues Poland 1700–1704
Peter founds St. Petersburg 1703
He defeats Charles XII. at Pultowa 1709
Catharine the Great 1762
The first partition of Poland 1772
Conquest of the Crimea 1783
Final partitions of Poland 1793, 1795

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND EMPIRE.

Victory of the Commons in the States-General 1789
The destruction of the Bastile 1789

Louis XVI. brought to Paris	1789
Flight and capture of the king	1791
The French constitution completed	1791
War begun against France	1792
France proclaimed a republic	1793
Execution of the king	1793
Execution of the queen	1793
The Reign of Terror	1793–1794
The execution of Robespierre	1794
Napoleon saves the Convention	1795
His victories in Italy	1796
His campaign in Egypt	1798–1799
Made First Consul	1799
The victory at Marengo	1800
Made First Consul for life	1802
Crowned as emperor	1804
War with Austria and Russia	1805
War with Prussia	1806
Battles of Eylau and Friedland	1807
War with Austria; victory at Wagram	1809
Napoleon divorces Josephine and marries Maria Louisa of Austria	1809
The invasion of Russia	1812
The burning of Moscow and disastrous retreat of the French	1812
The last campaign, and abdication of Napoleon	1813
Napoleon returns from Elba and is defeated at Waterloo	1815
Dies at St. Helena	1821

SECTION III.—THE WORLD'S RECENT HISTORY

CHAPTER I

EUROPE IN RECENT TIMES

Events of the Centuries.—Our long journey down the highway of man's progress through time has now brought us to the verge of our own days, and to a period which seems to us far more crowded with important events than the earlier centuries. But this is simply because it is so close to us. The past centuries were as busy, in their way, as the recent one has been, and we cannot justly give the latter any fuller attention than those that went before.

The Struggle for Freedom.—The history of Europe during the nineteenth century is largely made up of that earnest struggle which was spoken of in the last chapter, the conflict between the people and the kings, the one demanding greater liberty and fuller self-government, the other seeking to re-establish despotism. This great conflict showed itself in a dozen ways during the century, as will appear in what we have to relate.

The Influence of France.—The French Revolution spread its influence widely through Europe, and on all sides the people of the leading nations were filled with a thirst for liberty. Though Napoleon ruled as a despot, he did not take from France the free institutions it had won. In Italy, in Spain, in Germany, an earnest aspiration for freedom was awakened, and the people strongly protested against despotic

rule. This new feeling in the people of Europe had much to do with the events that followed.

The Holy Alliance.—When Waterloo had been fought and lost, Napoleon had left France for the last time, and Louis XVIII. had come back to the throne, the great monarchs of the continent entered into a compact against popular liberty, to which they gave the high-sounding title of the "Holy Alliance," but which soon came to be a league of the kings against the people. The monarchs were to do all the ruling, and it was the business of the people to submit.

The League of Kings.—The monarchs who formed this royal league were Alexander I. of Russia, Francis I. of Austria, and Frederick William III. of Prussia, but in time all the monarchs of Europe joined it, except the King of England, the Sultan of Turkey, and the Pope.

The Outbreak against Tyranny in Spain.—The first work of this conspiracy of the kings against the people was done in Spain. Ferdinand VII., king of that country, showed himself a tyrant, and on all sides his people struck for liberty. The Spanish colonies in America broke into rebellion and fought until they won their independence. In Spain the leaders of the army rebelled in 1820 and demanded the liberal constitution of 1812. The king, who was as great a coward as he was a tyrant, granted it to them under compulsion.

The Holy Alliance invades Spain.—Here was work for the "Holy Alliance." In 1822 the monarchs held a meeting and decided to interfere in Spanish affairs, and France was appointed to send an army into that country. The new government was quickly overthrown, the leaders of the rebellion were hanged, a large number of others were put

into prison, and Ferdinand VII. became an absolute monarch by aid of the bayonets of France. Thus the "Holy Alliance" crushed the movement for liberty in Spain.



THE BULL RING AT SEVILLE.

The Work of the Tyrants in Italy.—A similar event took place in Italy. Here most of the small states had come under rulers of the royal house of Austria, who soon proved themselves tyrants. The people protested, and a secret society was formed called the Carbona'ri, whose purpose was to free Italy from the rule of the despots. In Naples a new and liberal constitution was proclaimed. But now the "Holy Alliance" came in and put a quick end to this movement for liberty. Austria acted as its agent, and sent an army of sixty thousand men into Italy. By this large force the revolution was put down in blood and the chains of despotism were forged again. A movement in Germany for popular government was also brought to an end, and tyranny seemed to have brought all Europe under its foot.

Greece and Turkey.—The first successful struggle for liberty was in the small country of Greece, which for centuries had been under the iron rule of the Turks. The people of that old land of liberty felt the new spirit in the air, and broke out into revolt against Turkey. They called a Congress, and in 1822 adopted a constitution and declared for liberty.

The War of Independence in Greece.—Turkey at once tried to crush the rebellion in its usual cruel way. When the Turks captured the island of Scio they butchered nearly twenty thousand of the people. The Greeks treated their prisoners in the same way. The "Holy Alliance" would not help them, since they looked on the movement as a rebellion against royal authority, so the Greeks had to fight their battle alone with the great power of Turkey. But volunteers came to their help, among them the celebrated English poet, Lord Byron, who died in the cause of Greek liberty. At length, after five years' struggle, some of the powers of Europe began to help Greece, and in 1828 it gained its independence.



STATUE OF BYRON AND GREECE.

Russia and Turkey at War.—The freedom of Greece was followed by a Russian war against Turkey, in which Constantinople would have been taken if England and Austria

had not interfered. For centuries there had been war at times between these two countries, and there was to be more in the years to come.

Political Changes of 1815.—After the fall of Napoleon in 1815 several changes were made in the governments of Europe. Holland and Belgium were united as one country, called the Netherlands. But in 1830 Belgium broke loose and became a separate kingdom. The republic of Switzerland had been overturned by Napoleon, but it was founded again in 1815, under a new constitution. It still retains its republican government. The states of Germany were united into a Germanic Confederation, and Norway, which had long belonged to Denmark, became united to Sweden. Such were the principal changes that took place.

The Revolution of 1830.—The next period of important events came about 1830. Louis XVII. of France died in 1824, and his brother took the throne as Charles X. The new king was an old man, stubborn and foolish, and he fancied he could rule over France in the old way of the French kings. All he did was to bring on a new revolution. The people of Paris broke out in rebellion in 1830, the old tyrant was obliged to flee from the country, and Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, was made king.

A Wave of Revolution.—This outbreak in France sent a wave of revolution through all Europe. Belgium broke loose from Holland, as above stated, there was a rebellion in Poland, there were insurrections all through Italy, and there were uprisings in some of the German states. But the force of despotism was still great, and all the movements of the people were put down.

Reform in England.—The only gain for liberty was in England. In that country the Catholics, who had long been

deprived of nearly all political rights, were given in 1829 the liberty to hold office and become members of Parliament. In 1832 a great reform bill was passed by Parliament which gave the right of voting to hundreds of thousands of people who had never possessed it. This was a great gain for English liberty.

Louis Philippe and his Government.—For the next great movement in Europe we must go back to France and onward to the year 1848. Louis Philippe, the new king, began to govern in a liberal way, and made himself very popular. But as time went on he did things of which the people did not approve. The worst thing was about the suffrage. Of the men of France hardly one-twenty-fifth had the right to vote, and the king would not listen to those who asked for a wider suffrage. Discontent arose; some demanded universal suffrage, and many wanted the old republic back again; the land was full of rebellious feeling.

The Revolution of 1848.—When they found that the king would not listen to them, the people of Paris once more broke out in fierce revolt. This was in February, 1848. The rebels would have nothing now but freedom and the republic, the king fled in all haste to England under the assumed name of Mr. Smith, and what is known as the Second Republic was at once formed, with self-rule for the people. Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, a nephew of the great Napoleon, and grandson of the Empress Josephine and her first husband, was elected president, and France was launched again on a new career.

Effect of the Revolution of 1848.—The French Revolution of 1848 had the same effect in Europe as that of 1830: it set the people in motion nearly everywhere, and demands for liberty were widespread. The most striking results were

in Germany, Austria, and Italy, where strong revolutionary movements took place.

The Outbreak in Germany and Italy.—In many of the small states of Germany the people demanded and gained greater liberty. Even in Prussia and Austria the people were granted many of the rights they demanded. An effort was made to unite all Germany into one great state, but soon everything went wrong, and in little over a year the rulers had won their old power again. In Italy a rebellion broke out against the Austrians, and a war took place by which they were driven out of the country. But they came back, defeated their enemies, and regained their power in 1849. Charles Albert, of Sardinia, the leader in the war with Austria, now gave up his throne to his young son, Victor Emmanuel.

Austria and Hungary at War.—The most notable result of this great struggle for liberty was in Hungary and Bohemia, which were parts of Austria, and broke out in a fierce struggle for freedom. There was severe fighting all through the empire, even in the city of Vienna, but the rebels were soon put down except in Hungary, where a bitter and cruel war went on. The patriot Kossuth and other able generals led the Hungarians, who might have won their liberty if Austria had not called in Russia to her aid. Only then were the Hungarians beaten and the leaders forced to flee. The Austrians dealt with their prisoners with great barbarity, and Hungary was treated like a conquered country.

The Arbitrary Acts of Louis Napoleon.—We must return to France, to see how the new republic prospered. It had made a sad mistake in choosing for president Louis Napoleon, an ambitious adventurer, whose mind was full of the career of his famous uncle. It was his purpose to make

himself an emperor. His term of office ended in May, 1852, but on December 2, 1851, he seized all his enemies in the Assembly, and posted notices restoring universal suffrage, which had been taken from the people, and calling for the election of a new Assembly and the making of a new constitution. The people were gratified by their gift of suffrage, and voted to extend his term of office to ten years. Then he proposed to restore the empire. Again the vote of the people was very largely in his favor, and he was elected emperor as Napoleon III. Such was the outcome in France of the revolution of 1848.

Russia and Turkey.—The next important event in Europe had to do with Turkey. That country had long been grow-



STATUE OF NICHOLAS I.

ing weak, and had been given the title of "the sick man of Europe." Russia was anxious to gain possession of it, so as to have an opening for its ships into the Mediterranean Sea. Nicholas I., Czar of Russia, badly wanted an excuse to go to war with Turkey, and he got one at length from a

dispute about the Christians under Turkish rule. He declared war against Turkey in 1853.

The Allies of Turkey.—Most of the countries of Europe were afraid to let Russia become master of Constantinople, for fear that it would grow to be the most powerful of the nations, and England and France came to the help of Turkey. This led to a war between Russia on one side and England, France, and Turkey on the other. It is called the Crimean War, since most of the fighting was done in the peninsula of the Crimea, in the Black Sea.

The Siege and Capture of Sebastopol.—The foes of Russia landed in the Crimea in September, 1854, and soon laid siege to the Russian stronghold of Sebastopol (Seb-as-to'pol). The siege lasted several months, and some severe battles in the field took place. At length the city was taken by assault, and the long and costly war came to an end, Russia being defeated.

The War in Italy.—In the years that followed there were a number of important wars in Europe. One of these was in Italy, whose people were anxious to drive out the Austrians. This, in 1859, led to a war in which Napoleon III., who wished to prove himself a conqueror, came to the aid of Sardinia. The French army was successful, the Austrians being defeated in two great battles and forced to give up most of their possessions in Italy.

The Union of Italy.—Victor Emmanuel of Sardinia had long desired to unite Italy into one kingdom. He was greatly helped in this by the famous patriot Garibaldi, who invaded Sicily and Naples with a strong force, drove out their tyrannical king, and saluted the King of Sardinia as King of Italy. In 1861 a parliament of United Italy was called, but ten years more were to pass before the union was complete.

Prussia and her Great Minister.—The story of Europe during the years spoken of was one of war, and this was continued during the years that followed. In these years Prussia made a vigorous effort to become supreme in Germany, through the ambitious designs of Count Bismarck, the famous Prime Minister of King William I.

The Conflict between Prussia and Austria.—Austria had long been the leading power in Germany, but Prussia now pushed to the front. In 1864 Prussia and Austria went to war with Denmark, and took from that country the two duchies of Schleswig and Holstein. A dispute soon arose about these duchies, and this, in 1866 brought Prussia and Austria into war. Not often has there been so short a war. It lasted only six weeks. Prussia had a splendid army under able generals, and at the battle of Sad'owa it defeated the Austrians so completely that they were forced to ask for peace. This made Prussia the great power in Germany.

Napoleon III. makes War.—When Napoleon III. saw Prussia going ahead so rapidly he became alarmed. He was ambitious to keep France the leading state of Europe, and had the false fancy that his army was more than a match for that of Prussia; so he made use of a weak excuse for war, and called his armies into the field.

France defeated and Napoleon deposed.—Never was a man more mistaken and more quickly undeceived. The Germans were ready with a splendid army and able leaders, and their trained troops poured rapidly into France. The French army was far from ready. The first battle was fought on August 4, 1870. On September 1, less than a month later, came the decisive battle of the war, that of Sedan, in which the French were so utterly defeated that the whole army of eighty-four thousand men surrendered and

the Emperor Napoleon yielded himself prisoner. That ended his career as emperor. When the news reached Paris he was declared deposed, and a new republic was proclaimed.



MEETING OF NAPOLEON III. AND BISMARCK.

A New Emperor of Germany.—The war did not reach its final end till January 28, 1871, when Paris was surrendered and all was at an end. As a result of the great German victory all Germany, except Austria, united into an empire, and on January 18, 1871, King William was crowned and proclaimed Emperor of Germany. France was obliged to give up two provinces to Germany, and to pay that country one billion dollars.

The Russo-Turkish War of 1877.—Another war which demands our attention soon followed. Troubles broke out with the Christian people of Turkey in 1875, and the Turks committed such terrible outrages and massacres in Bulgaria that Russia sent its army to punish the Sultan for his savage cruelty. The war began in April, 1877, and ended early in the following year. The Russians were everywhere successful, and would have captured Constantinople had not the

other powers become alarmed, and insisted that Russia must not take possession of it. As it was, Turkey was obliged to give up great part of its territory in Europe, and several independent states were formed out of this territory.



MIRABEAU.

The Unity of Italy and Germany.—Meanwhile, Italy had gone on towards unity. In 1866 Venice obtained its freedom and Austria lost its last hold in Italy. Victor Emmanuel was now monarch of all Italy except Rome, in which a French force had long sustained the Pope. After the war with Germany these French troops were withdrawn and an Italian army at once marched in and took possession of Rome. For the first time since the year 476 Italy had become a united country, and Rome was again its capital, and for the first time for many centuries Germany was united and its small states were merged into one strong empire.

Reform Movements in England.—A few words must be said about England. In the year 1858 the Jews of that country were admitted to Parliament, as the Catholics had been thirty years before, and in 1871 Ireland was relieved from supporting the Church of England. It may be seen from this that England was fast growing liberal in religion, and giving political liberty to all its people. Great reform bills were passed which went far towards giving the people of England universal suffrage, and a strong effort was made to give Ireland what is known as Home Rule, that is, a

Parliament of her own. In 1903 a law was passed to aid in purchasing the land of Ireland for the peasantry and thus do away with the misery which had so long prevailed in that unhappy land.

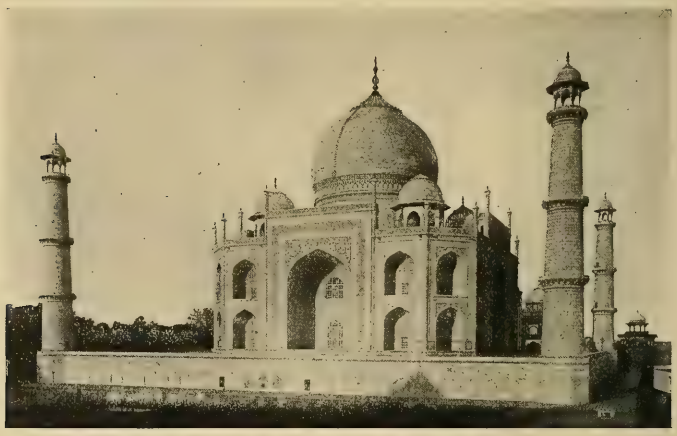
War between Turkey and Greece.—The last war of the nineteenth century in Europe took place in 1897, when an insurrection in the Island of Crete brought Greece and Turkey into a state of war. The Turks were much the better prepared for hostilities, and in a very short time the Greek army was completely defeated and Athens in danger of being occupied. Only the action of the powers of Europe saved Greece from being taken back under Turkish rule. Turkey was forced to give up the territory it had taken, but was granted a large indemnity, which Greece engaged to pay.

The Work of the Anarchists.—We may close this brief review of the recent history of Europe with reference to a dangerous movement of certain secret societies against the kings. During the century just described many secret industrial and political societies were formed. Of these the most threatening were those called Nihilists, a Russian association, and Anarchists, a society for the overthrow of all government, which spread itself widely throughout Europe. It was the chief aim of these societies to do away with the existing form of government, and this they tried to accomplish by the assassination of the rulers of Europe. In 1881 Alexander, the Czar of Russia, was assassinated by the Nihilists, in 1894 President Carnot, of France, was slain by the Anarchists, and in 1900 King Humbert of Italy was similarly killed. In 1902 a like fate met President McKinley, of the United States. Attacks were made on other monarchs, and this death-dealing society is still in active existence, despite all efforts to eradicate it.

CHAPTER II

THE COUNTRIES OF ASIA

Outgrowths of Civilization.—We have hitherto dealt only with the original seats of civilization, and the civilized States of Europe which arose at later dates as a result of the conquest of the Roman Empire. But during several of the



THE TAJ MAHAL, A SPLENDID MOGUL EDIFICE.

later centuries of the period treated civilization had been spreading over new lands and into new continents, as a result of discovery and colonization. These outgrowths, and the new nations to which they gave rise, we have so far passed without notice, that they might be dealt with separately as the latest harvest-field of human progress.


EUROPE
1900
Scale of Miles
0 100 200 400 600 800
ATLANTIC OCEAN
ARCTIC OCEAN
BRITISH ISLES
NORWAY
SWEDEN
FINLAND
LAPLAND
RUSSIA
GERMANY
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
FRANCE
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
ITALY
TURKEY
GREECE
ROUMANIA
BULGARIA
SWITZERLAND
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
BLACK SEA
CASPIAN SEA
ARAL SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ADRIATIC SEA
ASIA MINOR
AFRICA
ASIA
C.S.H.& CO., N.Y.
Longitude West 0 Longitude East from Greenwich

India in the Past.—Of these new outgrowths of civilization, those of Asia first present themselves. If we consider India, the great peninsula of the southeast, we shall find that for many centuries that country had no history known to the world. It was divided up into numerous small nations of very little political importance. When the Saracens made their great conquering marches they gained possession of most of northern India, and in the fourteenth century a powerful Mohammedan empire existed in that country, with Delhi for its capital. Then came the terrible raid of the Mongols under Tamerlane, and later on, in the sixteenth century, the famous Mogul (Mongol) Empire was founded, which had a number of powerful monarchs and has left behind it splendid works of art.

The Rise of British India.—During the eighteenth century the French and English took possession of the coastal regions of India, and were soon at war for supremacy. A great battle was fought at Plassey in 1757, in which the English, led by Robert Clive, defeated the French so thoroughly that they withdrew and left the English in control. Under the subsequent rule of Warren Hastings the dominion of the East India Company spread widely over India, many of the small states being subdued. The British power grew steadily under later governors, but it met with a great reverse in 1857, just a century after the battle of Plassey. Then the Hindu soldiers in the British army broke out in mutiny, and terrible massacres of the British in India took place. In the end the mutiny was stamped out in blood, and in 1858 India was taken from the East India Company and was made a section of the British realm. In 1877 Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India. At the present day nearly the whole of India is under British rule.

Modern Persia.—The land of Persia, once the seat of a mighty empire, as described in former chapters, fell under the rule of the Saracens in their great outflow, and later on was taken by the Mongols and the Turks. Early in the eighteenth century it was conquered by the Afghans, but in 1736 a famous Persian soldier, Nadir Shah, drove them out, and his descendants have since occupied the throne. There were wars with Russia in 1813 and 1828, in which Georgia and other provinces were lost, and with England in 1856–1857. In 1896 the Shah of Persia was killed by a fanatical assassin, leaving the throne to his son, Mozzar-ed-din, the present monarch of the Persian realm.

The Dutch and French in Asia.—In the seas south of India the Dutch still hold a number of rich and fertile islands, of which they took possession centuries ago. These are the great spice islands of the world, and yield Holland a large revenue. West of India lies the extensive peninsula of Indo-China, the greater part of which is now held by Europeans. The kingdom of Burmah and the western shores of the peninsula have been taken possession of by England, and all the eastern part of the country has of late years been seized by France. The only independent kingdom that remains is Siam, in the central part of the country. In 1893 the French took possession of fifty thousand square miles of the territory of Siam, and the whole of it is threatened by England and France.

The Early Story of Japan.—We must now speak of Japan, an island empire lying off the coast of northern Asia, which is one of the most interesting countries of recent times. The first we knew of this group of islands was when Marco Polo went to China in the thirteenth century. He visited an island called Zipanga, which was of wonder-

ful wealth. Later on the Portuguese made settlements in Japan and many of the Japanese became Christians. But disputes and troubles arose, and in the end the Portuguese were driven from the island empire, and in 1622 a great



DAI-BUTS, THE JAPANESE BUDDHA.

massacre of the Christians took place. After that for more than two hundred years Japan was closed against all Europeans except the Dutch, who were permitted to send trading vessels to one port.

The Opening of Japan.—In the nineteenth century, when the merchant ships of Europe and America began to sail in large numbers to the Pacific Ocean, this severe seclusion of Japan grew very annoying to the commercial nations. The result was that in 1853 the United States sent out a fleet under Commodore Perry, who with much difficulty induced the Japanese to make a treaty of commerce with his

country. Soon after that other nations made similar treaties, and Japan opened its ports to the commerce of the world.

The Japanese System of Government.—The government of Japan was found to be a feudal one, much like those of former Europe, the great nobles having almost independent power. The greatest of these, called the Shogun, or Tycoon, had a power like that of the Mayor of the Palace in old France. He was at the head of the military organization, and was the actual ruler of the country, the emperor, or Mikado, being deprived of all the power of his office, and kept in close seclusion.

The End of Feudalism.—This state of affairs came to an end in 1866, for in that year a revolution broke out in Japan, by which the Mikado was brought back to his full authority, the Shogun lost his control, and the feudal system of Japan was brought to an end. Since then the nobles have had no more power there than in other nations.

The Great Progress of Japan.—The government and people of Japan soon showed a remarkable eagerness to take up the inventions and organization of other countries, and the new civilization made remarkable progress in the island realm. The emperor yielded up his despotic power and gave his people a liberal constitution and representative government, and in much less than half a century Japan became as progressive and advanced a country as any in Europe. Its remarkable progress in military science was first shown in 1894, when a war broke out with China in regard to the rights of the two countries in Corea, a neighboring kingdom. In a brief time the Japanese had thoroughly beaten the Chinese and driven them out of Corea.

The War with Russia.—In 1904 a greater war broke out, this time between Japan and the powerful empire of

Russia, which was far stronger than China in military force. This war was brought about by the occupation of Manchu'ria, a province of China, by the Russians. Japan grew afraid of having such dangerous neighbors, and requested the Russians to leave Manchuria. This was not done, and war broke out. In this contest the Japanese soon showed that they had learned the modern art of war thoroughly and were a fair match for the Russians alike on land and sea.

China in Former Times.—The next Asiatic country of which mention needs to be made is the great and populous empire of China. This ancient country, like its neighbor, India, has never been a warlike and conquering land, but has several times been conquered. It was conquered by the Mongols in their great outbreak, and Kublai Khan made himself master of a vast empire, that extended from the Polar Sea to the Strait of Malacca. It was in his reign (1260–1294) that Marco Polo made his celebrated visit to that country and brought the first useful knowledge of it to Europe.

The Manchu Conquest.—In the seventeenth century China was conquered again, this time by the Tartars of Manchuria, the old dynasty of kings being overthrown and a line of Manchu kings founded in 1644. This line still holds the throne. It is as a sign of their subjection that all the Chinese are obliged to wear their hair in long cues.

Foreign and Civil Wars in China.—The Chinese did not welcome foreigners any more than the Japanese had done, but gradually many of these unwelcome visitors forced their way in. A war took place with Great Britain in 1840, on the question of the opium trade, the result being that the Chinese were obliged to open several ports to commerce and to yield to Great Britain the island of Hong Kong. A second war, with England and France, took place in 1857, and a

third one in 1860. In the last the city of Peking, the Chinese capital, was taken, and the palace of the emperor was ruined. These wars broke down the seclusion of China and opened it to the world. Another important event in Chinese history was the great Taiping rebellion, which continued from 1850 till 1864. During its progress great districts were laid waste and a vast number of lives were lost.

Seizures of Chinese Territory and the Boxer Outbreak.—After the war of China with Japan, Russia got possession of the important harbor of Port Arthur, and Great Britain and Germany also obtained valuable districts on the Chinese coast. This and troubles with the missionaries so added to the bitter feeling of the Chinese against the foreigners that in 1900 a great outbreak took place against them, many missionaries being killed and the foreign legations at Peking besieged by the insurgents, who belonged to a society called Boxers. The soldiers aided them, and the government did not interfere.

The Punishment of China.—The great danger of the foreign ministers and the murder of the German minister caused the several powers to land troops, and after some severe fighting a march was made on Peking, which city was taken and the ministers and their people were rescued. This outbreak, and the support given it by the Chinese government, led to severe demands by the Western nations, which China was forced to grant. They included a large indemnity in money.

Russian Conquests in Northern Asia.—We have still to speak of a very important part of the history of Asia, that of its warlike invasion by Russia and the vast possessions gained by that aggressive nation. These began as early as 1580, when Siberia was invaded. It was rapidly overrun,

and an immense territory added to the Russian Empire. Since that date a large Russian population has settled in Siberia, and within late years a railroad has been laid across its whole great length. From 1851 to 1857 Russia took from China important districts on the Amur River, and as a result of the Boxer outbreak of 1901 it gained a strong hold on the Chinese province of Manchuria, and extended its trans-Siberian railway to Port Arthur, on the southern extremity of that province. It was this that brought on the war of 1904 between Russia and Japan.

Russia in Central Asia.—Russia has made equal progress in South and Central Asia. A war took place with Sha′myl, the leader of the mountain tribes of the Caucasus, which led to the conquest of their country and its annexation to Russia in 1859. Soon after that a war began with the fierce tribes of Turkestan′, and between 1865 and 1875 these were conquered, and their country was added to Asiatic Russia. Thus a great part of the vast continent of Asia came under the control of Russia, whose territory now extends from the Polar Sea to the borders of Persia and Afghanistan′, and, north of China, from Europe to the Pacific Ocean. In the modes we have mentioned far the greater part of Asia has been divided up between the powers of Europe, while the remainder is threatened with the same fate. In past times Asia sent its hordes to conquer Europe. In recent times Europe has reacted on Asia.

CHAPTER III

AFRICA AND THE PACIFIC ISLANDS

A Land of Mystery.—We come now to the story of Africa, the "Dark Continent," as it has long been called. This title applies in a double way,—it fits the color of the people and the mystery in which the country has long lain. Aside from its northern border—what we may call the Mediterranean states—Africa has had no known history until within recent times. Within the memory of millions of men now living the interior of this continent was as unknown as the mountains of the moon. But this is no longer the case. Daring travellers have traversed the



A Desert Camp.

land from end to end and from side to side, and Africa has of late years begun to make a history of its own.

Egypt's Recent Story.—In the northeast corner of the continent lies the far-famed country of Egypt, with a

history going back to the very earliest date. But Egypt lost its independence some twenty-five centuries ago, and since then it has had no national history. It has been held in succession by the Persians, the Macedonians, the Romans, the Saracens, and the Turks, and since 1881 has been under the control of the British. It is still looked upon as a province of Turkey, but Great Britain is now the true lord and master of the land. This is a very good thing for the Egyptian people, for their country has grown prosperous under British rule; great dams have been built to hold back the waters of the Nile and feed them out to the fields, so that far more of the land may be watered and made fertile; the fierce Arabs of the south have been defeated and overcome, and the dominion of Egypt has been extended to the great lakes of the far south, in which its grand river, the Nile, has its rise.

The Barbary States.—Along the coast of the Mediterranean Sea, westward from the desert border of Egypt, there extend what are often called the Barbary States. In these once stood the great city of Carthage, the rich Phœnician colony which was utterly destroyed by Rome. After the fall of Rome this region was held in succession by the Vandals, the Greeks, the Saracens and the Turks. It includes the Moorish states of Tripoli, Tunis, Algeria, and Morocco, with which Turkey has long had very little to do, and whose sea-going people long kept up the habit of piracy which came down from the days of ancient Rome. For a long time the mercantile nations of Europe paid tribute to the rulers of these pirate states, to save their ships from being robbed and their sailors from being sold as slaves.

America and the Pirates.—In 1785 the merchant ships of the United States began to enter the Mediterranean, and

were treated in the same way. For a time that country paid tribute also, but it soon grew tired of this, and sent strong fleets to those waters, which took and sunk some of the pirate ships and threatened with bombardment the cities of Algiers and Tripoli. This so frightened their rulers that they were glad to make treaties in which they agreed to let American vessels alone. Since 1815 there have been no pirates in those seas.

France takes Algeria and Tunis.—In 1830 the French sent armies into Algeria, and after some hard fighting conquered the country. In 1881 they also took possession of Tunis. France in addition claims the Sahara Desert south of these countries, and has done much to make fertile spots in this vast desert by sinking artesian wells, and thus watering the fertile soil.

The "Dark Continent."—If now we come to Africa south of Egypt and of the vast Desert of Sahara, we reach the "Dark Continent" above spoken of, the land of the black-skinned African, which for so many ages remained unknown. About the only portion of it which has an ancient history is the country of Abyssin'ia, which lies on the east coast, adjoining the mouth of the Red Sea.

The Story of Abyssinia.—Abyssinia is a land of white men, having been settled in very ancient times by people of the Semitic race. These may have crossed the sea from Arabia to settle in this land. The Abyssinians, while only partly civilized, have been Christians from very early times. They were converted by Christian missionaries in the fourth century. In 1855 Theodore, their king or *Negus*, began to oppress the agents and missionaries of Great Britain. A British army was sent to punish this barbarous ruler, and Magda'la, his capital, was taken by storm. Theodore then

killed himself. In 1889 an able king named Men'elik succeeded to the throne. At this time Italy was seeking to gain control of Abyssinia, and sent its armies inland until, in 1894, a war began. In 1896 the Italians were totally defeated and forced to acknowledge the independence of Abyssinia. Since then King Menelik has proved himself a good and just ruler.

The Early Discoveries.—The modern world knew nothing of Africa south of the countries named till after 1432, when the Portuguese began their voyages of discovery. These were kept up till 1497, and Portugal made settlements on the west and east coasts. The discovery of the interior of Africa came much later. The most famous of the early discoverers were James Bruce, who travelled through Abyssinia to the source of the Blue Nile in 1768-1773, and Mungo Park, who discovered the upper waters of the great Niger River in 1795-1796.

The Dutch Settlement.—Settlements were made from time to time by the English, French, and Dutch, the most important of them being the settlement of the Dutch at the Cape of Good Hope, made about 1650. This was taken from Holland by the British in 1795, and since 1815 it has been acknowledged British territory.

Livingstone and Stanley.—As the nineteenth century advanced travellers in Africa grew more numerous, and the country was widely explored. The greatest of these adventurous men was David Livingstone, a Scotch missionary, who began his travels in Africa in 1849. He was the first European to set foot in Central Africa, where he continued to make valuable discoveries for many years. For a long time he was lost in the far interior, and in 1871 Henry M. Stanley, another famous explorer, was sent in to search

for him. He discovered him at a negro town on Lake Tanganyi'ka. Soon after that the great traveller died.

Stanley's Great Journeys.—Stanley continued his travels, and in 1874 set out on an expedition in which he discovered the grand Congo River, which he followed to the sea, being the first to cross the country from ocean to ocean. In 1886-1889 he made another splendid journey, passing through the great forest of Central Africa to the region of the lakes in which the Nile has its source. This famous traveller afterwards lived long in England, dying on the 10th of May, 1904.

Other Travellers.—Other daring travellers made important discoveries, entering at various points and traversing Africa to north, south, east, and west, until it ceased to be a "Dark Continent," and became by 1900 nearly as well known as some of the older continents.

The "Partition of Africa."—After the period of discovery began the period of settlement. The nations of Europe grew eager to possess portions of this great virgin continent, so long given up to savage and barbarian tribes, and what is known as the "partition of Africa," or its division between the European powers, came into play.

The Congo Free State.—Before 1876 no nations except England, France, and Portugal held lands in Africa, and these seemed well content with what little they had. After that date new settlements began to be made, stations being formed on the Congo River, and in 1885 the Congo Free State of Central Africa was formed. This is under the patronage of King Leopold of Belgium, by whom its government is controlled. It is about nine hundred thousand square miles in area, and embraces the vast upland region through which flows the Congo and its many branches. It

has its thriving settlements, its steamboats on the rivers, and its railroad inward from the coast.

Claims of England, Germany, and France.—After this central state was formed England, France and Germany began to claim vast areas in the remaining parts of the African continent. England had long held Cape Colony in the south, which it gradually extended far into the interior. It also took possession of a very large district in the east-central region, extending inward to the lake country, and also a valuable district on the Guinea coast, reaching far inward from the mouth of the Niger River. Germany obtained a large holding on the east coast, reaching inland to the Congo Free State, and others in the southwest and the Guinea regions. France obtained vast tracts of land in north-central Africa, crossing the continent from the Atlantic to the British possessions in the east, and stretching downward to the lower Congo.

The Possessions of the Powers.—British Africa, at the present time, embraces more than two million five hundred thousand square miles, and French Africa nearly three million, though the greater part of this is in the Sahara Desert. Germany claims nine hundred and twenty thousand, Portugal seven hundred and thirty-five thousand, and the Congo Free State, as already said, nine hundred thousand square miles. Italy, Spain, and Turkey also have their shares, and nearly the whole of Africa has been divided up between the greedy powers of Europe. But as yet their settlements are mainly on or near the coast, and their great possessions are largely on paper only. It may be long before much of the territory claimed is really occupied.

British South Africa.—This cannot be said of the British possessions in South Africa. These are of immense

value, as they contain diamond-mines of fabulous richness, and gold-mines equal to those of Australia and the United States. This South African colony has a history of its own, which must now be told.

The Migration of the Boers.—Great Britain, as has been said, obtained possession of the Boer Republic at the Cape



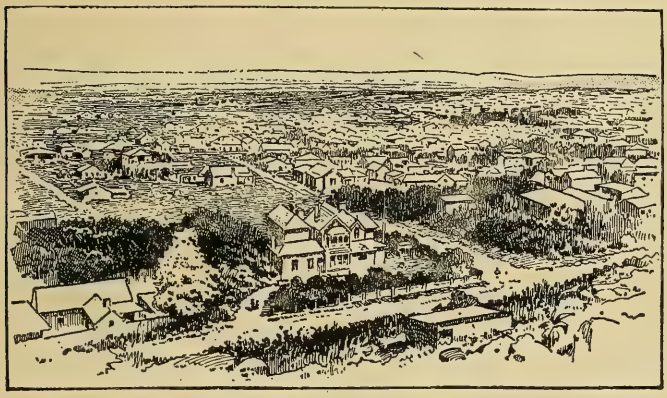
A Boer Commando.

of Good Hope in 1815. The sturdy Boers, of Dutch and French descent, did not like their new masters, and the most of them emigrated to the north from 1833 to 1837. In 1840 they founded a new republic in Natal. But soon the British claimed this country also, so the Boers moved on into the highland region, where they founded two republics, named the Transvaal Republic and the Orange River Free State.

War with the Boers.—In 1877 Great Britain laid claim to this country, as it had done to the others, and sent troops there to take possession. But the Boers were not ready to

give up and again move on, and a war followed, in which the British forces met with a severe defeat in 1881. In this way the Boers won back their independence.

The Gold-Mines and the Foreigners.—A number of years later rich gold-mines were discovered in the Transvaal country, and British and other miners came there in multitudes, till the foreign population was much greater than the native. The mining city of Johannesburg grew till it had a population of one hundred and fifty thousand.



JOHANNESBURG.

Hostile Relations of Britons and Boers.—Disputes and complaints soon began. The foreigners wanted the right to vote, which the Boers would not give them. In 1895 a party of British settlers invaded the Transvaal, hoping to take it from the Dutch, but they were defeated and made prisoners. Matters grew steadily worse until 1899, when Great Britain took up the case of the mining settlers and demanded that they should be given certain political rights. British troops were sent to South Africa, and, as a result,

President Krüger, of the Transvaal or South African Republic, declared war against Great Britain and sent a Boer army into Natal on October 12, 1899.

The War and its Result.—The war that followed was hotly contested and continued for nearly three years. At first the Boers were successful, but Great Britain continued to send troops till she had two hundred and fifty thousand men in the field. This was nearly ten times as many as the Boers had under arms, so that the country was now quickly overrun. But the brave Boers were not beaten. They began a guerrilla war and held their own for more than a year longer. They did not surrender till May 30, 1902, when their numbers had become so few that they could fight no longer. They were granted very favorable terms, but their independence came to an end, and their country was added to the great colonial empire of Great Britain.

A Great Pacific Colony.—We have named three of the great colonies of Great Britain,—Canada, India, and the African possessions. There is still another, the enormous island of Australia, so immense that it is now classed with the continents. This lies in the South Pacific Ocean, to the south of India and to the east of Africa. South of it is another important British colony, the group of fertile islands known as New Zealand.

The Settlement of Australia.—The first Englishman to see the shores of Australia was Captain Dampier, in 1688. A century later, in 1788, the first settlement was made in New South Wales. Since that time the occupation of this great island has gone on without disturbance, for its inhabitants were scattered tribes of low savages who made no opposition. In 1851 gold was discovered, which added greatly to the population, the mines of Australia being among

the richest on the earth. But the whole of Australia cannot be settled, since its great interior is largely a rainless desert, and the population cannot go far inland from the coast. The country has now a population of nearly four millions, with a government in great part independent. There are six Australian states, including the neighboring Island of Tasmania, and these have recently united into a federal union, named the Commonwealth of Australia, which is under a British governor-general, but in practice governs itself.

The Philippine and other Islands.—We need only say further that the numerous islands of the Pacific Ocean have been claimed by the nations of Europe till hardly one of them remains independent. The latest historical event in this region had to do with the Philippine Island group, which was discovered by Magellan in 1521 and was annexed to Spain in 1569. In 1898, after the war between Spain and the United States, these islands were ceded to the latter country. But their new owners had to fight hard for possession, for the Philippine natives broke out in insurrection, and it took more than two years to put them down. Since the spring of 1901 the islanders have been peaceful, and hopeful progress is being made.

CHAPTER IV

THE COLONIES AND NATIONS OF AMERICA

Beginning of American History.—In the year 1492, when Christopher Columbus crossed the ocean and discovered a verdant land in the far west, he opened a new conti-



THE SHIPS OF COLUMBUS.

nent to history. There lay the great domain of the red man, a vast territory without a written word that any white man could read, and with a story that was all tradition. Only when the whites came from Europe did true history

begin in that continent. Of this history far the most important part is that belonging to the United States, but as this, no doubt, is well known to our readers, it will be dealt with very briefly here.

The Settlers of America.—First came the Spaniards, who quickly spread over most of the central and southern region, and the Portuguese, who began to settle the vast woodland country of Brazil. The French and English came later, after 1600, the French settling the country along the St. Lawrence River, and the English the coast lands between Florida and Canada. The Dutch and Swedes made settlements also, and in time all the countries of Western Europe took part in the peopling of the New World, as it was called.



THE MEXICAN CALENDAR STONE.

Character of the Colonists.—The settling of a new country is not an easy task. There were the hardships of the broad ocean, in little storm-tossed sail-vessels, to bear, and then the hardships of the shore, with cold and hunger and

sickness, to endure, and the savage Indians to fight. But the people who came were of the choice stock of Europe, hardy, daring, and enterprising, the best seed to plant in new colonies. Very many of them came from the homes of those humble sufferers who had been cruelly treated for their religious opinions, and who hoped to find a land in which they would be free to worship God in the way their conscience told them was right.

The Nationalities and Quarrels of Settlers.—The Spanish settlements grew rapidly, and many colonies were founded in South and Central America. The English and French came more slowly. But in time these also grew in numbers, and quarrels arose as to who owned the land. The English, you should remember, were between the French and Spanish, and each claimed far more than they had occupied. The claims of these three peoples often covered the same territory.

A Series of Hostilities.—On this account fighting began between the English of South Carolina and Georgia and the Spaniards of Florida, and also between the English of New England and the French of Canada. But this fighting led at first to nothing but bloodshed and suffering, for when it was over each party still held on firmly to the land it had settled. The Indians, the old owners of the country, fought also, and did all they could to kill the white men or drive them away. But the whites knew more about the art of war than the savages, and drove them back and took from them a great deal more of their land.

The French and English in the Ohio Country.—The time came when a great war began between the English and French. You must bear in mind that for many years the British settlements kept close to the ocean shores. Only

very slowly did they spread inland, and it was not until about 1750 that the people began to think of settling the country west of the mountains and along the Ohio River. Before this time the French had gone west by way of the Great Lakes and south down the Mississippi River, and they, too, now began to push into the Ohio country. It was this that brought on the first great war in America.

The French and Indian War.—This war is known in history as the French and Indian War. It began in the country about the head-waters of the Ohio, and the first fighting was done by Virginia troops, led by a young officer named George Washington. But as the war went on it spread through New York and New England, and kept up for seven years. It was not confined to America, but there was fighting all through Europe, where it became known as the Seven Years' War.



THE HEIGHTS OF QUEBEC.

The Result of the War.—In America many of the Indians helped the French, and there were fierce battles, now one side winning and now the other. But in the end the English drove the French back and invaded Canada, and

took the cities of Quebec and Montreal. When the war ended France gave up the whole of Canada to Great Britain, which also won the Ohio Valley and all the country as far west as the Mississippi River.

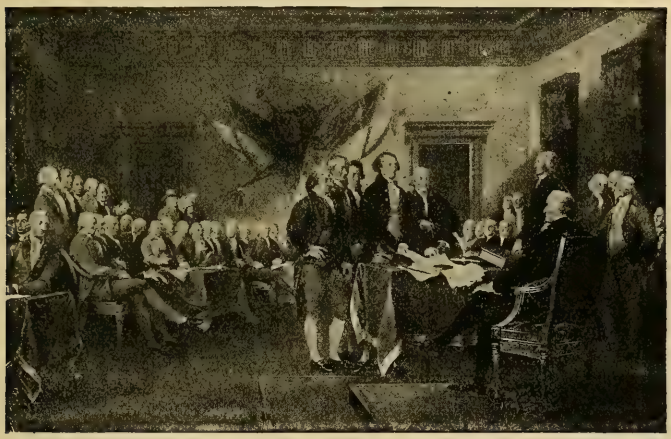
Causes of Rebellious Feeling.—After the war was over the British colonists settled down and began to develop the country. Many more came from Europe, and the people began to grow prosperous. But soon new troubles arose. The King of England wanted money, and tried to tax the Americans, and the English Parliament said that they should not make any goods for themselves, but should buy all they wanted from English merchants and manufacturers. There were other things also that made ill-feeling.

How the Revolution began.—When so much bad feeling exists between two countries it does not take much to bring on war. King George grew so angry with the people of Boston, in Massachusetts, that he sent soldiers there, and in April, 1775, these soldiers tried to seize some arms which the people had collected at the village of Concord. This brought about a fight in which the soldiers got much the worst of it. The farming people at once began to besiege the British in Boston, and in this way began what is known as the American Revolution.

The Revolution and its Outcome.—The war that followed lasted for about seven years. George Washington, he who fought the first battle in the French and Indian War, commanded the American armies, and proved himself one of the great soldiers and great men of the world. Strong armies were sent over from England, and at times it seemed as if Washington and his ragged and hungry troops could not fight any longer. But there was no surrender in George Washington, and Benjamin Franklin, another great American,

got help from France, and after two British armies had been made to surrender to the Americans, King George gave up the fight and agreed that the colonies in America should be free.

Political History of the Revolution.—Such was the military history of the Revolution; now let us speak of its political history. There were thirteen English colonies in America, stretching from New Hampshire to Georgia. These had long been separate, each like a small nation of its own, but when the trouble with England came on they thought it best to act together; so a congress was elected and met in



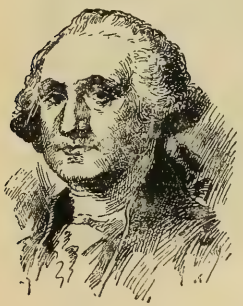
Signing the Declaration.

Philadelphia in 1774. We shall here speak of only one of the things done by the Continental Congress. This was the Declaration of Independence, a famous state-paper drawn up by Thomas Jefferson, of Virginia, and adopted by Congress on the 4th of July, 1776. The name of United Colonies was changed to United States of America, which was declared to

be a free and independent nation, over which Great Britain had no longer any control.

The Articles of Confederation.—The new States made new governments for themselves, and adopted Articles of Confederation for their united government. But when the war was over, and the people settled down again to the affairs of peace, it was soon found that these "Articles" were very weak and feeble. The States had kept nearly all the power to themselves and left very little to Congress, and wise men saw that the Union could not be kept together very long unless it had a stronger bond to hold it.

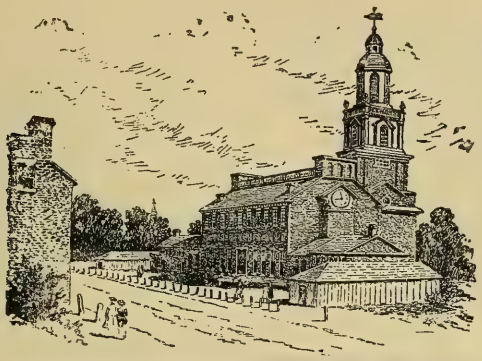
The Making of the Constitution.—It was this that brought about the Federal Convention, which was held in Philadelphia, in 1787, to form a new Constitution, or plan of government, for the United States. The ablest statesmen of the country were members of this Convention, and George Washington presided over it. It was four months in session, and when it adjourned it had formed the splendid Constitution which has ever since been the foundation stone of the government of the United States. It was strong where the old Articles of Confederation had been weak, and it has proved its strength many times since, binding the Union of States into a great and powerful nation.



GEORGE WASHINGTON.

The New Government.—The Constitution provided for a President to rule the country under the laws, a Congress of Senators and Representatives to make the laws, and a Supreme Court to decide if the laws agreed with the Constitution. The new government began its existence on April 30,

1789, when Washington took his seat as the first President of the United States. The people looked on him as the Father of his Country, and no one else was thought of for President.



INDEPENDENCE HALL AT THE TIME OF THE REVOLUTION.

Hamilton and the Finances.—Now we must go on rapidly with what followed. The country was very poor and its money affairs were in a terrible state, but Alexander Hamilton, a great financier, was made Secretary of the Treasury, and he managed the money question so wisely that the country was soon getting on very well.

New Territory purchased.—After 1800 the country became very prosperous. At that time the United States extended only to the Mississippi River, and Spain claimed the great territory west of that river. This had once belonged to France, and in 1800 Napoleon induced Spain to give it back to France. But he soon grew afraid that England, with her powerful fleet, would take it from him, so in 1803 he sold it to the United States for fifteen million dollars. This great territory extended as far as the Rocky Mountains, and was of immense fertility and value. Its sale to the

United States is known in history as the Louisiana Purchase. This event was celebrated in 1904 by a splendid World's Fair at the city of St. Louis.

The War of 1812.—In the years that followed these events the great wars of Napoleon went on in Europe. England wanted sailors for her war-vessels, and began to take men out of American ships, claiming that they were British subjects. This and other insults caused such bitter feeling in America that in 1812 war was declared against Great Britain, and for nearly three years fighting went on. When it ended it was seen that neither side had gained anything by the war, and both had lost. England had paid a high price for every sailor she had taken out of American ships, and after that she never took any more.

The Era of Good Feeling.—The people of the United States were glad enough when the war was over. Business at once started up, and soon the sounds of industry were heard through all the land. For many years all went on very quietly. There was some trouble with the pirates of the Barbary states, who were forced to let American commerce alone, but at home there was so little trouble of any kind that it was called "the era of good feeling."

The War for Freedom in Spanish America.—Now let us look at Spanish America. Spain had been treating her colonists worse than England ever treated hers, and about 1810 some of these began to fight for freedom. The fighting went on for ten or fifteen years, and by the end of this time they had all won their independence except the island colonies of Cuba and Porto Rico. All of them formed republican governments, like that of the United States. The Spaniards still held on to Florida. But disputes and fights began, and Spain grew afraid of losing Florida, and sold it

in 1821 to the United States. This was another valuable addition to the great republic.



STATUE OF BOLIVAR, THE "LIBERATOR" OF SOUTH AMERICA.

Growth and Prosperity.—During the next forty years the American people continued to grow in wealth and numbers, and many thousands of people came from Europe to the United States. Its manufactures and commerce were very active, and it was plainly seen that the new republic was growing into a great and powerful nation.

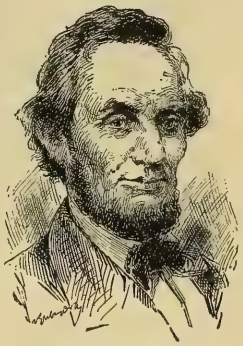
The Tariff and Slavery.—There were two subjects of dispute which caused much bitterness of feeling between the American people. One of these was the tariff; the other was slavery. The South was a farming country, where negro slaves did the field-work on the plantations. In the North there were many mills and factories, where large quantities of goods were made. A high tariff, or tax, on foreign goods, was laid, so as to make these costly and force people to buy goods made at home.

What South Carolina did.—In the South, where there were no mills, the tariff was not welcome, for people had to pay more for their goods, so that it cost more to live. In 1832 South Carolina declared that no duties should be collected in her ports, but goods should come in free. This was an act that threatened to break up the Union of the States, but President Jackson, a determined old soldier, soon made the Carolina people see that they must obey the laws. The great danger to the Union was to come from a larger subject than the tariff,—that of slavery.

The Independence of Texas.—Let us go on now to the story of another war. In the southwest was a large country named Texas, which was part of Mexico, one of the Spanish republics. But many people from the United States had settled there, and they did not like Mexican rule, so in 1835 a rebellion broke out. The Mexicans were driven away and Texas became independent. In a few years afterwards its people asked to be taken into the United States, and this was done in 1845.

The Mexican War; New Territory gained.—When Texas was taken the Mexicans became so angry that they began to fight with the United States. The war that followed was not a long one. It began in 1846 and ended in 1847. The Mexicans were defeated in every battle, their capital city was taken, and in the end the United States gained from them a territory containing more than half a million square miles. It extended from Texas to the Pacific Ocean, and was very rich, as was shown when the gold of California was found. About the same time the great Oregon country was added to the United States, which now stretched three thousand miles from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean.

The Slavery Trouble.—But there was one mighty trouble which had been growing in the United States for years. This was the slavery question. Many people of the North were opposed to slavery, and laws were passed to prevent it from being extended beyond its old territory. There were also many runaway slaves, who were helped to escape by Northern people, and this made the people of the South very indignant. At length, in 1860, the party opposed to slavery elected as President Abraham Lincoln, a strong opponent to the extension of slavery.



ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

Secession and War.—As soon as the election of Lincoln was known South Carolina seceded from the Union. Soon afterwards all the Gulf States did the same. Four other States seceded later on, making eleven in all. These said that they were out of the Union, and they formed a new union of their own. On the 12th of April, 1861, Southern soldiers began to fire on Fort Sumter, a government fort in Charleston Harbor. When the news of this came north, President Lincoln called out volunteer troops, and the great Civil War began.

Results of the Civil War.—Of course, we cannot tell here the story of this mighty four years' war, with its many marches and battles, its vast numbers of killed and wounded, its frightful conflicts, and its terrible loss of property and wealth. The most we can venture to do is to speak of its results. In the end the North was the victor, and slavery, the cause of the war, was abolished. From 1865 till the

present day there has not been a slave in the United States, —that is, a man whom another man could legally claim as his property. But the cost had been terrible. The South was ruined, and could not recover for years; the North had



A Scene at Gettysburg.

a debt of two billion seven hundred and fifty million dollars, besides great debts in States and cities. Rarely has the world known a more costly war. But it had removed the one main cause of hostility between the States, and thus had done a great good.

The Career of Canada.—We have said nothing here of Canada, the great British colony that lies north of the United States. In fact, there were no events in its history of such importance as those that took place in the United States. Affairs there went on quietly, with minor troubles, and the most important event took place in 1867–1871, when all the provinces except Newfoundland joined together in a federal union called the Dominion of Canada. It is practically an independent country, a governor-general of limited au-

thority being its only political link of connection with Great Britain. But there is a strong link of sympathy and sentiment which binds it to the mother country.

Leading Events in Brazil.—In South America Brazil, the great Portuguese colony, began an important era in its history in 1808, when the royal family of Portugal, fleeing from the French armies, took refuge there and carried the Portuguese government from Europe to America. It was made a kingdom in 1815 and an empire in 1822, and in 1825 cut loose from Portugal and became independent. In 1831 the emperor abdicated and returned to Portugal, leaving the throne to his son, Dom Pedro II. In 1889 a revolution in favor of a republic broke out, Dom Pedro was forced to abdicate, and a republican government was instituted. Thus ended the only monarchy in America.

The Cuban Contest.—In the history of the United States there is one more war, with consequences of some importance, to be mentioned. A rebellion broke out in the Spanish island of Cuba in 1895, and continued for three years. In seeking to put it down the Spanish commanders treated the Cubans so cruelly that the people of the United States became very indignant. In January, 1898, the American battle-ship "Maine" was blown up in Havana harbor, and nearly all on board were killed. This made the people so angry that war was declared against Spain.

What the War with Spain yielded.—The result of the war was the destruction of the Spanish fleets in Cuban and Philippine waters and the conquest of Cuba and Porto Rico. In the treaty that followed Cuba was given its freedom, and Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands were ceded to the United States. The latter, however, were not held without difficulty, for a native insurrection broke out that proved

very difficult to subdue. But the country is now quiet and seemingly content. The islands are populous and rich in mineral and agricultural wealth, and are likely to be of great future value to the United States, which has a large and rapidly increasing commerce with the neighboring Asiatic countries.

Importance of the United States.—As regards the history of America, we shall merely say in conclusion that the United States has grown to be not only far the most important of American countries, but in some respects the most important country in the world. It is the richest and most prosperous of all, and exceeds in population all the countries of Europe except Russia. No country on the earth has a more promising future than this great republic of the west.

CHAPTER V

PROGRESS IN MODERN TIMES

Modern Progress.—We have now brought the history of mankind down to the twentieth century of the Christian era. But something remains to be said of the progress of the world during modern times—the advance which man has made in the arts and ideas of civilization. This is a subject far too great to be treated at any length, and the most we can do with it is to point out some of its leading features.

Ancient Fields of Progress.—As has already been stated, man made much progress in ancient times. Greece reached a height of excellence in art and literature which has never been surpassed. Rome made great developments in the art of government and in legal science. The important advance in Asia was in religion, for there grew up all the great religious systems which now rule the world,—those of China, India, Palestine, and Arabia. In a rocky corner of Asia arose the great Christian religion, which now prevails in all the most highly civilized nations.

Mediæval Development.—The mediæval period also had its steps of progress. In it appeared the feudal system of government and the institution of chivalry, which were new ideas in the world. And in it arose a great church government unlike anything the world had ever seen. The Pope ruled the nations, not, as in all earlier times, by the power of the sword, but by the power of the mind. His dominion was over the souls of men, and when he spoke with the voice of spiritual authority the mightiest kings had to obey.

Architecture and Literature.—This period also developed a new architecture, as great in its way as the old temples of Egypt and Greece. Two new systems appeared, the light and beautiful Saracenic and the grand Gothic, wonderfully different from the architecture of ancient times. A new literature also arose, a crude and barbarous one as compared



An English Palace.

with that of Greece and Rome, but full of a fresh spirit, that of imagination and romance. These are some of the ways in which the mediæval world broke away from that of the older times, and laid the foundation for the coming civilization of the modern world.

Modern Progress in Art and Literature.—The modern civilization has grown to such vast proportions and has developed such an immense variety of new ideas and institutions that we can speak of it only in the most general terms. In some respects it has not got far beyond ancient results. It has done nothing more admirable in art and literature than was done by ancient Greece. It has added no new great style of architecture to those of ancient and mediæval

days. The only art in which it has excelled is that of music. There is nothing in the past to compare with the music of modern times. In literature the new world has gone far beyond the past only in the art of fiction. The modern novel is a product of thought which had nothing like it in former times.

Other Modern Movements.—When we come to talk of progress in civilization it is best to know just where we stand. In the stages of progress we have mentioned the modern world has only two things it can justly call its own, its music and its fiction. In these alone its art has gone far beyond that of the past. But there are other stages of progress which belong almost wholly to itself, and in which it has gone forward to wonderful results. It is these stages which we have next to point out.

The Thirst for Discovery.—When Columbus set out on his voyage of discovery over the unknown sea he was the pioneer of the modern world. Its great watchword is discovery. Greece was content to do great things in its little rocky peninsula, and cared almost nothing for the world that lay outside. Rome spread over the known nations of the world, but did not trouble itself about the unknown. In the modern world, on the contrary, the discovery of the unknown has become a passion, and it has gone on until nearly all the lands and seas of the world have been explored, and civilization has made its way into continents in which only savagery formerly dwelt.

The Development of Science.—The passion for discovery has spread into other fields than that of geography. Man has set out to discover all the secrets of nature. In ancient times only the foundation stones of the temple of science were laid. In modern times science has grown into a great

and splendid edifice. Man has learned hundreds of thousands of facts about nature and its forces, about the winds and the waves, the earth and the stars, heat and light, motion and force, electricity and magnetism, plant and animal



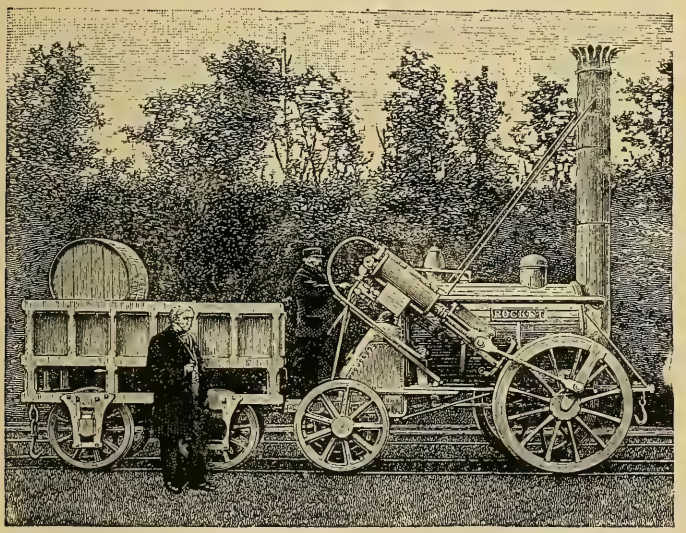
THE COURT OF HONOR AT THE CHICAGO WORLD'S FAIR.

life, and so on almost without end. This is the work of science, and its development is one of the greatest things which the world has to show.

The Miracles of Invention.—There is another splendid field of discovery in which modern times have shown as great an advance as in that of science. This is the field of invention. Man has grown tired of the slow work of the hands and has set himself to develop the fast work of the machine. What we call labor-saving machinery has transformed the world of industry. It has been like Aladdin's wonderful lamp. Man has rubbed it, and a thousand mar-

vels have arisen at his touch. All civilized lands are now full of great factories and mills, filled with swift-moving and wonderful machinery, and from which flow goods of every kind in endless profusion, to be borne to all parts of the world and sold so cheaply that a peasant to-day can enjoy luxuries which the kings of old could not command. And the fields of the farmer are full of other wonder-working machines, and produce to-day tenfold the food which they did when men worked with their hands alone.

The Union of Science and Invention.—These are wonderful triumphs for the modern spirit of discovery, but



GEORGE STEPHENSON'S LOCOMOTIVE, THE "ROCKET," 1829.

they are not the whole. The history of progress takes us into another field of discovery, in some respects the most wonderful of all. This is the field in which science and

invention operate together and produce marvellous results which neither could do alone. A few words will show what is meant by this.

Some Striking Examples.—Science discovered that steam, or water-gas, had a great pushing force. At once invention set out to use this force, and the steam-engine was discovered. Without this we would not have the factory, the locomotive, and the steamboat, which are the magic-makers of modern progress. Science discovered that the sunlight could make impressions on certain chemical substances, and invention gave us the marvellous photograph and the new art of picture printing. Science discovered the great force and strange qualities of electricity, and invention gave us the electric light, the telegraph, the telephone, the electric motor, and the trolley-car. These are a few of the ways in which the union of science and invention has benefited mankind.

The Treasures of the Earth.—You may see that we might go on and on, almost without end, with the story of what has been done by the modern spirit of discovery. Look at what man has discovered by digging into the earth and seeking for its treasures. Consider the vast quantities of iron and coal, of gold and silver, of lead and tin, and many other metals that have been dug up, and what great good they have been to mankind. Then there is petroleum, or rock oil, of which rivers have flowed up from the depths for our good; and natural gas, which serves us for light and heat; and rock salt, which we use on our tables, and a dozen things besides.

Progress in Government.—We must leave this wide field of discovery, which has been worked with such wonderful results, and consider some other phases of the modern prog-

ress of mankind. One of them has been a great advance in the art of government. The despotic rule of ancient times, in which the people were slaves to the kings, has given place to the limited monarchy of modern times, in which the kings dare not break the laws made by men whom the people elect for that purpose. And the little republics of old, which were made up of a city with a small territory around it, like that of Athens, have been succeeded by the mighty federal republic of the United States, which covers half a continent.

Manufacture, Commerce, and War.—Other great stages of modern progress are to be seen in the wonderful story of manufacture and commerce, which are making the world a hundred-fold richer than was ever dreamed of in the past. As for the terrible art of war, by means of which the kings and peoples of old sought to enrich themselves by plundering others, it is rarely used for any such purpose in modern times, and the time seems coming in which all disputes between nations will be settled by peaceful arbitration, and war will be at an end.

Freedom of Thought.—What has just been said leads us to consider another phase of modern progress. Man in modern times has been reaching out for freedom in all directions, and one of the best of these is freedom of thought. In mediæval times, as you have seen, the clergy were the lords of thought on all religious subjects, and it was not safe for any man to think in any other way than that laid down for him by the lords of the church. When people began to rebel against this slavery of thought, an attempt was made to control their minds by force, and the terrible persecutions and religious wars of which we have written came on. But all this failed, and to-day, in the most advanced nations,

men have full freedom to believe what they please, both about this world and the world to come.

The Spirit of Kindness.—One result from the passing away of persecution for opinion, and cruel punishment for crime, has been a great increase in the spirit of kindness in the world. There is to-day no more religion than there was of old. There is not as much of what used to be called religion. But there is much more morality, men are nobler and better and kinder than in the narrow and bigoted days of the past, and the noble doctrine of human brotherhood and love for all mankind which was taught by Christ is now being practised far more widely than ever before.

Narrowness of Sympathy in the Past.—In the far off times when Christ lived upon the earth and taught his sublime doctrines, there was none of the broad human sympathy among men that there is to-day. Greece was the most advanced country of the past, but a Greek looked upon a native of any outside country as a barbarian, with whom he had nothing in common and whose life and death mattered nothing to him. Rome was a far larger nation, with a broader feeling of brotherhood, but the Romans were cruel and cared nothing for human suffering outside their own circle of friends.

Mediæval Conditions.—In mediæval times man continued cruel and barbarous. He was narrow and ignorant, and had little more sympathy for the people of other countries than for the wild beasts of the forests. The punishments that prevailed were of the most terrible kind, and we read of things being done by men high in station which it would seem that none but demons could do.

Growth of Human Brotherhood.—Coming down to our own times we find a wonderful difference. A kindly feeling

has gone far to replace the cruelty of the past, and the old narrow national sentiment is fast dying away. The world is not one nation politically, but it is on the way to become one nation commercially and fraternally. The merchantship has brought the most distant nations close together, while the rapid and incessant travel of our times has produced a spirit of acquaintance and friendliness between the people of nations separated by wide oceans. It is this which is extending the sentiment of human brotherhood far beyond national limits. We can feel as warm sympathy for sufferers in far-off India as men once felt only for the people of their own city. Patriotism still exists, love for one's country is a good and useful thing, but the opposite sentiment of hostility for other countries is dying out, and very many of us are becoming in feeling "citizens of the world."

A Half-Told Story.—Such is a very brief review of the story of modern progress. A thousand things more might have been said about it if we had had the space, and even then it would have stayed half told. All we shall say further, then, is that man in modern times has made in many respects a great advance beyond ancient man. And he is in the pathway to greater progress still. Our feet have just been placed on the threshold of the twentieth century, and no man can say what it will bring forth. But the best thing we can hope for from it is a greater progress still in bringing about Christ's injunction of universal love, goodwill, and charity.

SUMMARY OF RECENT HISTORY.

Europe.

The Holy Alliance	1815
Austria suppresses the patriotic movement in Italy	1821
France invades Spain and puts down the patriots	1822

Greece fights for and wins independence . . . 1821–1828
Belgium and Holland separate 1830
The second French Revolution 1830
Louis Philippe made king 1830
The reform movement in England 1832
The revolution against Louis Philippe 1848
Popular outbreaks in Germany and Italy 1848
The war for liberty in Hungary 1848
Louis Napoleon elected president of France 1848
Becomes emperor as Napoleon III. 1852
England and France fight Russia; the Crimean War 1853–1854
Reforms in England 1858–1871
The French and Austrian war in Italy 1859
A parliament of United Italy called 1861
Prussia and Austria at war with Denmark 1864
Austria defeated by Prussia 1866
Napoleon III. declares war against Prussia 1870
The invasion of France and capture of Napoleon . . 1870
Napoleon deposed and a republic declared 1870
Italy becomes a united kingdom, with Rome for its capital 1870
The Germans triumphant and King William crowned emperor 1871
Russia and Turkey at war 1877
New states formed of Turkish territory 1878
The Greeks at war with the Turks; are defeated . . . 1897
The anarchists and their assassinations of rulers . 1881–1902
The land law in Ireland 1903

Asia.

The beginning of British India 1757
The great mutiny in India 1857
Queen Victoria proclaimed Empress of India 1877
Assassination of the Shah of Persia 1896
The French conquests in Indo-China 1885–1893
The opening of Japan 1853

The Shogun deposed; the Mikado regains power . . 1866
The war between Japan and China 1894
English and French wars with China . . . 1840, 1857, 1860
The Taiping rebellion 1851–1864
The Boxer outbreak 1900
Russia invades and annexes Siberia 1580
Takes territory from China 1851–1857
Conquers the Caucasus 1859
Subdues the Tartars of Turkestan 1865–1875
Occupies Manchuria 1900
The Russo-Japanese war 1904

Africa and Australasia.

Suppression of the Barbary pirates 1815
France invades and conquers Algeria 1830
The British invade Abyssinia 1868
French protectorate over Tunis 1881
British control of Egypt begins 1882
Menelik becomes king of Abyssinia 1889
Italy sends troops into Abyssinia 1894
They are totally defeated by Menelik 1896
Bruce and Park, the great African travellers . . 1768, 1795
Livingstone and his discoveries 1849–1871
Stanley's discoveries in Africa 1871–1889
The Congo Free State formed 1885
The partition of Africa 1885–1904
The British take possession of South Africa 1815
Migration of the Boers 1833–1837
Boer republics formed 1840–1860
The first British and Boer war 1880–1881
The gold-mines and miners; invasion of the Transvaal . 1895
War declared by the Boers 1899
The conquest of the Boers 1902
The discovery of Australia 1688
The first settlement 1788
Gold discovered in Australia 1851
An Australian commonwealth formed 1901

America.

Columbus discovers America	1492
Spanish, French, and English settlements	1492–1733
The French and Indian War	1754–1763
The British colonies in rebellion	1775
The colonists declare their independence	1776
They win independence	1783
The Constitution of the United States	1787
Washington the first President	1789
Hamilton and the finances	1790
The Louisiana territory purchased	1803
The second war with Great Britain	1812–1815
The Spanish-American colonies win their freedom	1810–1825
Florida purchased from Spain	1821
The tariff troubles; South Carolina nullification	1832
Texas wins its independence	1835
Is annexed to the United States	1845
Oregon added to the United States	1846
War of Mexico with the United States	1846–1847
A great acquisition of territory from Mexico	1847
Lincoln elected President	1860
Secession of Southern States	1860–1861
The Civil War	1861–1865
Slavery abolished	1863
The Dominion of Canada formed	1867–1871
Brazil the seat of the Portugese government	1808
The republic of Brazil established	1889
The Cuban rebellion	1895–1898
United States at war with Spain	1898
Hawaii annexed by the United States	1898
Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands annexed	1899
Insurrection in the Philippines	1899–1901
Assassination of President McKinley	1901
Cuba an independent republic	1902

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